Journal of the

CEYLON BRANCH

OF THE

ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY

HISTORICAL TOPOGRAPHY OF ANCIENT AND MEDIEVAL CEYLON

(New Series, Volume VI, Special Number)

by

C. W. NICHOLAS'

The design of the Society is to institute and promote inquiries into the History, Religions, Languages, Literature, Arts, Sciences and Social Conditions of the present and former inhabitants of the Island of Ceylon, and connected cultures

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R. L. Brohier O.B.E.

ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY (Ceylon Branch)

Royal Asiatic Society (Ceylon Branch), Thurstan Road, Colombo-3.

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Historical Topography of Ancient and Medieval Ceylon

By C. W. NICHOLAS

Introduction

THE period covered by this compilation is from the earliest times to the end of the 13th century, at which time the medieval Sinhalese kingdom was falling into ruin. The succession disputes, beginning with the death of Parakkamabāhu I in 1186 and ending with the rillage and persecution during the reign of the last Kālinga, Māgha (1214—1235), preceded the collapse. The Javanese, Śri Dhammarāja of Ligor, whom the Cūlavamsa calls Candabhānu, and the Pāṇḍyans made invasions of Ceylon in 1245, 1264, 1268 and 1280. A great famine occurred about 1283 and was followed by the Pāṇḍyan conquest: for 20 years thereafter Ceylon formed part of the Pāṇḍyan Empire. The ancient irrigation system had already broken down, and Codrington has suggested that the famine probably coincided with the first appearance of malaria which, for over six and a half centuries afterwards, became the scourge of the dry zone. The north-western, northern, north-eastern and maritime eastern parts of the Island passed permanently out of Sinhalese hands to the Tamils.

The topographical material is arranged regionally and follows the modern territorial scheme of revenue districts except in the case of the lower course of the *Mahaväli Ganga*, which, between Mahiyangana and the sea, constitutes the boundary of six different districts. This arrangement makes a full Index indispensable, and one has been provided.

Much of the topographical material in the unpublished Brāhmī inscriptions has been included, but not that in the unpublished medieval inscriptions of the 8th to the 13th centuries.

The situations of ancient and modern places are described in the text in sufficient detail to enable them to be located with accuracy on the one mile to an inch topographical sheets and approximately on the Motor Map of Ceylon.

In the Pāli works, the ancient Sinhalese place-names were translated into Pāli, sometimes literally, sometimes freely and variantly to meet the needs of the metre, and sometimes pedantically. The following examples may be quoted:—Acchagalla for Sinhalese Valasgala, Doņivagga for Sinhalese Deṇavaka, Pattapāsāṇa for

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Sinhalese Patpāṇa, Tintiṇikagāma for Sinhalese Siyambalāgama; Hiraññamalaya and Suvaṇṇamalaya for Sinhalese Raṇmalakanda, Nālisobbha and Nālikeravatthu for Sinhalese Polvatta, Dhūmarakkhapabbata and Udumbarapabbata for Sinhalese Dumbulāgala; Maṇimekhala for Sinhalese Miṇibe, Nadībhaṇḍagāma for Sinhalese Ōbaḍa, Gaṅgāsiripura for Sinhalese Gaṁpaḷa, and Jambukolalena for Sinhalese Dambululeṇa. Codrington has pointed out that the Pāli terminations -thalī, -sobbha and -rukkha stand for Sinhalese -goḍa, -vatta and -rakē respectively.

Ancient Pali and Sinhalese names are printed in ordinary type in the text and the Index. Modern place names are printed in the Text in *italics*.

CHAPTER I

CEYLON

(A). Position, Physical Features and Climate

The position of the Island of Ceylon (Lanka) in the Indian Ocean lies between the parallels of 5°55' and 9°51' north latitude and the meridians of 79°43' and 81°53' east longitude. The Island is pear-shaped, 271 miles from north to south and 140 miles from east to west, and its area is 25,332 square miles. The southernmost part of the peninsula of the Indian mainland is separated from Cevlon by the shallow Gulf of Mannar and the shoals and sandbanks of Adam's Bridge, the intervening sea being only 20 miles wide at the narrowest point. The severance of Ceylon from the Indian continent took place in geologically recent times: and some memory of the inundation of the former land-bridge (roughly, the area between the two 5-fathom bathymetrical contours to north and south of Mannār Island) appears to be preserved in some of the legends about events of very early times. The tiger supplanted the Indian lion in the Vedic age, for the Rigyeda mentions the lion but not the tiger: when the tiger moved down into South India, the land connection with Ceylon no longer existed.

The coast of Ceylon, except on the south-west, is indented by many lagoons, most of which are now quite shallow. Numerous large and small bays and roadsteads served as anchorages for the sailing vessels of ancient and medieval times. The south, south-west and west coasts are exposed to the fury of the south-west monsoon (May to October) and the only sizeable and comparatively safe ports in this area were Galle and Colombo: but the evidence points to the area between Kalutara and Galle as having been very sparsely populated prior to the 10th century. On the north-eastern coast, the Bay of Trincomalee, ancient Gokanna, is one of the largest and finest natural harbours in the world. The main concentration of shipping in ancient times was in the sheltered ports of the Mannār district and the Jaffna peninsula, facing the shallow, north-western seas.

The extensive and lofty montane zone of Ceylon is its south-central region. It rises in two successive peneplains from the lowlands which surround it on all sides and terminates in the highest mountain, Pidur.:talāgala, at 8,292 feet. It is a cool and healthy region, well provided with perennial rivers and streams which descend in waterfalls and rapids: its natural vegetation is luxuriant and the scenery is exceedingly beautiful. The average annual rainfall is 80 to 125 inches, rising to 140 to 200 inches in the upper valley of the Mahaväli Ganga, around Ramboda and the Knuckles, and falling away to 65 to 100 inches in the mountains of Ūva and the more easterly hills.

which form a drier sub-zone. By the end of the 1st century B.C. the lower montane valley of the Mahavāli Ganga valley around Kandy, Teldeniya and Gampola, the lesser hills to north-west of Badulla, and the northern and western slopes of the Mātalē hills were populated. The routes of these early settlers in the mountain valleys at elevations of 1,000 to 2,000 feet are marked by an ascending series of contemporary inscriptions at the sites of the temples which they founded. Above about 2,500 feet the montane zone was largely unpopulated till the 9th or 10th century. The Lowcountry, which surrounds the montane or Upcountry zone, is divided into two sharply separated zones, the Lowcountry wet zone and the Lowcountry dry zone, the one very different from the other in climate and vegetation.

The Lowcountry wet zone extends over the western, southwestern and southern lowlands (the Chilaw, Colombo, Kalutara, Galle, Mātara, Kāgalla and Ratnapura districts principally) and receives the rains of the south-west (May to October) monsoon as well as of the north-east (November to April) monsoon, the average annual deposition being 85 to 125 inches, rising to 130 to 200 inches in the Ratnapura and Kalutara districts, parts of the Kägalla and Galle districts, and the lower valley of the Kälani Ganga. The rivers are perennial, broad and deep, and cause annual floods. There is no need to store water for irrigation because there is no lack of it in any season occasional droughts cause no appreciable distress. The vegetation is very dense and luxuriant, and wild growths have to be kept in check to prevent them from invading gardens and cultivated lands. The land is flat near the coast and rises gradually, though frequently broken by ranges of hills and rock outcrops, to the foothills of the montane zone. The Chilaw, Colombo and Kägalla districts were populated in pre-Christian times, as numerous inscriptions attest, but the greater part of the Lowcountry wet zone was in forest: it was not, and is not, owing to its much smaller extent of flat land, as suitable an area as the dry zone for the cultivation of rice.

The Lowcountry dry zone, which comprises the north-western, northern, north-eastern, north-central, eastern and south-eastern parts of Ceylon and forms about 70 per cent of the total land area, is historically the most important region in Ceylon because it was the cradle of the Sinhalese civilisation. It receives the rains only of the north-east monsoon, while during the south-west monsoon it suffers an annual drought from May to September. If the north-east monsoon rains fail, as they sometimes do, severe distress can follow because its agricultural economy is dependent upon normal rainfall in the rainy season. Severe drought can alternate with heavy floods. The annual rainfall averages 50 to 75 inches, decreasing to 35 to 45 inches in two arid sub-zones, the *Mannār* district in the north-west and the *Hambantoṭa* district in the south-east. During the annual drought the temperature rises, the grass turns to stubble and the vegetation

becom es parched, the smaller tanks shrink to muddy pools, the streams and watercourses run dry, and the larger rivers, except the Mahav äli Ganga and the Valavē Ganga, are reduced to trickles or break up into disconnected pools. The land is not uniformly flat; numerous rock outcrops and several ranges of hills exceeding 1,000 feet in height intersect the level ground. Full advantage was taken by the ancient Sinhalese of the differences in contour to close gaps between ridges and create large and small reservoirs, and to dam rivers at higher levels and divert their waters along artificial canals to irrigate the rice fields: irrigation engineering was one of the greatest skills possessed by the ancient people and they constructed a vast and intricate system of interrelated dams, canals and tanks, often mingling the waters of rivers flowing in different directions. At the beginning of the 2nd century B.C., if not earlier, population had spread over the entire dry zone and the construction of tanks and canals had begun.

In the presently Tamil areas of the north and east, many placenames have assumed Tamil forms in which the original Sinhalese element is recognisable; but Codrington states that 'this is not the case in the country behind Mannar: there these names are purely Tamil'. Throughout the Sinhalese districts of the north-western and north-central regions the great majority of the ancient Sinhalese place-names has been lost, and it has been suggested that the present population is not descended from the original Sinhalese inhabitants. These were regions subject to invasion and conquest, and with the downfall of the Sinhal ese kingdom and the ruin of the irrigation system. followed soon afterwards, very probably, by the advent of malaria. heavy migrations of population into the hills and the wet zone would have taken place. In Rohana and Malaya, many ancient placenames have survived in original or modified form: in some of these cases, the modern name of a hamlet or even a land is the survivor of an ancient village name.

(B). Literary References, Mainly External

The Ceylon Chronicles begin the history of Ceylon in the lifetime of the Buddha, that is, in the 6th century B.C. according to Sinhalese chronology. They state that the Island was then known as Laṅkādīpa, but it acquired the additional name Tambapaṇṇi (Taprobane of the Greeks and Romans) because the hands of the wearied Indo-Aryan immigrants who first landed in Ceylon were coloured by the coppercoloured earth when they threw themselves down at their landing-place: and it acquired, also, a third name, Sīhaladīpa (Salike of Ptolemy, Serendivi and Serendib of the Arabs), because the leader of the first immigrants and his followers were of the Sīhala clan.

The earliest reference to Ceylon in Indian literature is in Kauṭilya's Art haśāstra in which it is referred to as Pārasamudra, 'the land beyond the Ocean', (the forerunner of Palaesimoundu and Simondou of some

of the Greek writers). In Greek literature of the 4th and 3rd centuries B.C., accounts appeared in the writings of Onesicritus, the chief pilot of Alexander the Great, Megasthenes, the Greek ambassador to the Indian court of Chandragupta, and Eratosthenes, the first of the geographers, about what they had heard concerning Taprobane. These accounts, since they were not based upon personal knowledge, were, as is to be expected, partly fabulous: but in this respect they were not unique, because fanciful notions about the Island and its people persisted up to the 2nd century, even after Greek and Roman merchants and mariners had long been trading in its ports. Onesicritus, the earliest European writer, would have gathered his information about Ceylon from the sea-faring men in the Indus delta, and it is evident that the Island of Tambapanni had a repute among the people of that region which it could not have acquired unless sea communication between the Indus delta and Cevlon had been established well before the time of Onesicritus' journey down the Indus (B.C. 325). To this sea-route can be traced, upon other grounds as well, the beginning of the Indo-Arvan colonisation of Cevlon, these first immigrants being natives of North-western India. Knowledge of Ceylon in the Mauryan Empire of the Ganges Valley in North-eastern India existed, as Megasthenes' account shows, in the reign of Chandragupta (circa B.C. 321—297): communication by sea between the two countries had definitely been established, according to the historical evidence, by the time of Asoka (circa B.C. 274-237), the point of departure from and arrival at the mouth of the Ganges being Tāmalitti, modern Tāmluk. In the inscriptions of Asoka reference is made to Tamraparni (Ceylon), along with the South Indian kingdoms of Chōda (Cōla), Pāndya and Keralaputra (Kerala), as lying outside the limits of the Mauryan Empire. It is fairly certain that other streams of Indo-Arvan immigration into Ceylon from North-eastern India followed those which came earlier from North-western India.

These sea-routes to Cevlon from the deltas of the Indus and the Ganges doubtless hugged the coast of the Indian peninsula, and the first Indo-Aryan adventurers who reached Ceylon, both from the western and the eastern sides of India, must necessarily have made earlier acquaintance with the South Indian kingdoms. Indeed, it is highly probable that the Indo-Aryan sailors learned of Ceylon from the native sailors whom they met in South Indian ports, because it is incredible that the South Indians could have failed to discover their large. island-neighbour before the sailors of the Indus delta did so. The Pāṇḍyans were closest to Ceylon, and, in all probability, had established trading contacts with and trading stations in Cevlon from the early years of their existence as a kingdom. Whether the people, or at least the dominant section of them, in these kingdoms at this period and earlier were Dravidians, as they were for certain in the 2nd century B.C. and afterwards, is now in dispute In the legendary beginnings of Sinhalese civilisation related in the early chapters of the Mahāvamsa, the kingdom of Pandu (which name is consistently used for Pandya

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both in the *Mahāvamsa* and the *Cūlavamsa*) is said to have been in existence in the 6th century B.C., and the leader and chiefs of the first Indo-Aryan arrivals in Ceylon are said to have sent envoys to the Pāṇḍyan king and obtained wives, craftsmen and material assistance from that kingdom: the Paṇḍu king is not specifically called a Damila, nor is it suggested that the normal inference that he was a Damila should not be drawn in this particular instance. Conquerors of Ceylon from South India, designated Damilas in the *Mahāvamsa*, are mentioned in the first few decades of the 2nd century B.C., at which period one or more of the Dravidian kingdoms was sufficiently powerful to embark on conquests overseas. It will probably never be resolved satisfactorily why the South Indians did not resist the North Indian colonisation of Ceylon, or, if they did, how that resistance was overcome: by the 4th century B.C., if not earlier, the Indo-Aryan speaking people had founded a new and stable kingdom in Ceylon.

The inhabitants of this new Indo-Aryan, island kingdom, whom we may now call the Sinhalese, retained their cultural contacts with Northern India, particularly North-eastern India, and these contacts profoundly influenced their early civilisation. But they could expect no material aid in war, nor, perhaps, even remote political support from the distant lands of their origin. The possible and potential threats to their security and independence subsisted in their Dravidian neighbours in Pāṇdya, Cōļa and Keraļa, and their relations with these kingdoms and the enemies of these kingdoms on the mainland became, accordingly, the principal factor in their foreign policy throughout their subsequent history.

The writings of Onesicritus, Megasthenes and Eratosthenes have not survived in original, but there are quotations from their works in the later geographical descriptions of Strabo and Pliny in particular. All, as did even Ptolemy five centuries later, greatly exaggerated the size of Ceylon and made it extend westward close to the African coast. All agree that it was an island off the southernmost part of India. Onesicritus says there were other islands between Taprobane and India, and Megasthenes that the intervening sea was full of shallows not more than 6 paces in depth but some channels were so deep that the anchors did not touch bottom. Both Onesicritus and Megasthenes say that the vessels used for this voyage were of about 35 tons and had prows at each end to avoid turning about in narrow channels. Onesicritus gives 20 days as the duration of the voyage from the Indian mainland and adds the information that around the shores of Taprobane were cetaceous animals which are amphibious and in appearance like oxen, horses and other land animals: he says also that the elephants of Ceylon were larger and more bellicose than those of India, which is the exact opposite of the truth, the Ceylon species being smaller and more docile and greatly prized abroad for this tractable quality. Eratosthenes says the voyage to Taprobane from the most southern ports of India occupied 7 days: he confirms the trade in elephants and adds that

the Island had no cities but villages to the number of 700. Megasthenes says further that Taprobane was divided by a river and the inhabitants were called Palaeogoni and that it produced more gold and pearls of a greater size than India: the mariners of Taprobane made no observations of the stars, the Great Bear not being visible to them, but took birds out to sea and released them and followed their flight to land: the season for navigation was limited to four months and the sailors particularly avoided the 100 days which succeeded the summer solstice.

In the 1st century B.C. a Greek named Hippalos made the great discovery of the use of the monsoon winds to sail direct from the mouth of the Red Sea across the Indian Ocean to India, but Greco-Roman shipping did not begin to make full use of this knowledge till the following century. Then the coast-wise voyages were abandoned and regular, direct sailings to South India and Ceylon became the rule. Previously, the products of Ceylon were available to Western merchants in the ports of South India, but now they were secured by direct trade, and the better knowledge gained about the Island by these increasingly frequent visits to Ceylon is embodied in the writings of Strabo (circa B.C. 30—A.C. 24), Pliny the Elder (23—77), the author of the Periplus (circa 60), and, in particular, Ptolemy (circa 150). Strabo says that ivory, tortoise-shell and other articles were brought in large quantities from Taprobane to the Indian markets. Pliny says that Taprobane was 7 days sail from the Ganges. He describes how in the reign of Augustus Caesar a freedman of Annius Plocamus, while coasting off Arabia, was carried by the winds for 15 days and made land at Hippuri or Hippuros, a port of Taprobane, where he was hospitably entertained for six months by the king whose capital was at Palaesimundus, a city of 200,000 inhabitants, situated near a harbour which faced south. The king particularly admired the Romans when he found that their denarii, though stamped with the heads of different emperors, were all of equal weight: and being desirous of establishing trade relations with the Romans, he sent four Sinhalese ambassadors. the chief of whom was Rachias (S. Rativa, a district chieftain), to accompany the freedman back to Rome. The account said to have been given in Rome by these ambassadors about their native land and its people is narrated at some length, but it is very evident that much of it is fabulous and very probably the result of misapprehension by the Romans and the Sinhalese of each other's language. The Sinhalese envoys are reported to have said that in the interior of the Island there was a lake called Megisba, 375 miles in circuit, with islands suitable for pasturage: 'from this lake there issued two rivers, one of which. called Palaesimundus, flows into the harbour near the city of the same name by three channels, the narrowest of which is 5 stadia wide, the largest 15, while the third, called Cydara, has a direction northward towards India. They further said that the nearest point in India is a promontory called Coliacum, four days sail from the Island, and that midway between them lies the island of the Sun; also that those seas 10 JOURNAL, R.A.S. (CEYLON) New Series, Vol. VI, Special Number

are of a vivid, green colour, and that a great number of trees grow at the bottom, so that the rudders of ships frequently break their crests off '. Among the products of the Island were said to be a marble which resembled tortoise-shell (mica), pearls and precious stones: elephants and tigers were hunted there. The *Periplus* says that the name Taprobane had been replaced by Palaesimundu.

Ptolemy's account of Cevlon is quite exceptional. He calls it 'the Island of Taprobane which was formerly called Simoundou and now Salike' (Sihaladipa) and he says that 'the inhabitants are commonly called Salai' (Sihala). Ptolemy wrote his Geography in the middle of the 2nd century. He exaggerates the size of Ceylon to 14 times its actual area, but gives its general shape and outline with fair accuracy. His longitudes, reckoned eastward, are about 7° less than they should be and his Equator is about 230 miles north of its actual position. Codrington has identified North Cape with Talaimannar, Talakory or Aakote with Mantai (ancient Mahātittha), Anourogrammon with Anuradhapura, the River Ganges with the Mahaväli Ganga, the Malaia Mountains with the central mountain region (Malaya), and Maagrammon, the metropolis, with either Mahiyangana or Mahagantota: he adds that the name River Azanos is derived from Azania, the east coast of Africa, towards which the coast of Taprobane was believed to extend. Other obvious identifications are Nagadiba with Nagadipa or Nakadiva (the Iaffna peninsula) and Rhogandanoi with the inhabitants of Rohana (Ruhina). Codrington's identification of Talakory or Aakote with Mahātittha (in medieval Sinhalese, Mahaputu, Mahavutu, Mahavoti, Mahavutota, in Tamil, Mātottam) is untenable. Modouttou approximates much more closely to the old Sinhalese name, and it is very unlikely that a mistake was made in respect of the principal port. Talakory or Aakote must, therefore, be Mannar itself or a port on Mannar Island. Since Nagadiba undoubtedly stands for a coastal town in the Jaffna peninsula (Sūkaratittha or Hūrātota, modern Kayts; or Jambukola, modern Sambilturai; or, improbably, Point Pedro), the entire coast-line from North Cape through Modouttou to Nagadiba represents the north-west coast of Ceylon and not the north-east coast as Ptolemy shows it. This necessitates an important reorientation of Ptolemy's map.

The River Phasis is the *Malvatta Oya*. Anoubingara, like Pati Bay, was a place between *Māntai* and *Point Pedro*: the same name occurs on the west coast and the duplication is evidently an error. The termination suggests a name ending in -nakara: the place was situated on the coast of the *Jaffna* peninsula. Pati Bay may stand for the *Jaffna* lagoon. If Codrington's identification of the mouth of the River Ganges with the Bay of *Trincomalee* is correct, then Ptolemy's map assigns only 1½ degrees of latitude to the 130 miles of coast-line between Nagadiba (probably *Kayts* or *Sambilturai*) and *Trincomalee*, while it assigns 4 degrees to the 80 miles between

Talaimannār and Nagadiba. It is very unlikely that the long northeast coast is represented by the short gap on the map between Nagadiba and the mouth of the River Ganges and that this lengthy stretch of inhabited coast had only one feature of interest, the Spatana Haven. If the River Ganges is the Mahaväli Ganga, it is extraordinary that no port is marked at its mouth and the great harbour of Trincomalee had no name. Codrington draws attention to the noticeable exception of Trincomalee among the find-spots of ancient coins, but this is not a weighty argument against the antiquity of Trincomalee because finds of coins of Ptolemy's time and earlier have been rare. In the Chronicles the port of Trincomalee is called Gokannatittha or Gonagamaka: it is mentioned as a landing place in the 5th century B.C., though this account is probably legendary, and again in the 3rd century, and the author of the Mahāvamsa believed in its antiquity as a port at the time he compiled his work. The identity of the mouth of the River Ganges with the Bay of Trincomalee rests wholly upon the identification of that river with the Mahaväli Ganga. Ganges does not necessarily signify the largest river in the country: Ganga, from which it is derived, means any large river and there were several gangas in Ceylon. Ptolemy's River Ganges is the shortest of his five rivers and he gives its source as a range of hills in the lowcountry: the sea-faring men from whom Ptolemy collected his data could not have been misinformed by their Sinhalese informants about the great length of the Mahavāli Ganga and its origin in the central mountain region (Malaia). Further down the east coast on Ptolemy's map is the port Bokana, which name approximates closely to Gokanna: its situation is near the mouth of a river which rises, as the Mahaväli Ganga does, in the central mountains. On all the grounds stated above, the correctness of the identification of the River Ganges with the Mahaväli Ganga becomes very doubtful: the probabilities are that the River Barakes represents the Mahaväli Ganga and Bokana the port of Trincomalee (Gokanna). The River Ganges is probably the Elephant Pass lagoon or the Mullaitīvu lagoon. Spatana Haven is a corruption of a name ending in-patana (port) and probably represents Point Pedro. Oxeia Headland ('Sharp Point') and the Haven of Rizala may, conjecturally, be put down as a point north of Mullaitīvu and the Mullaitīvu lagoon. Prokouri may have been near the mouth of the Nay Aru. The Great Coast and the Haven of the Sun may correspond to Kokkiläy lagoon. Abaratha appears to have been a name ending in -rata (district): a place named Abagamiya is mentioned in a pre-Christian inscription near Kuccavēli. The Haven of Mardos was a short distance to the south. Cape Ketaion ('Whale Cape') was a point where a change of course had to be made and seems to fit Sangamankanda, the most easterly point in Ceylon. The Chronicles of the early historical period (3rd B.C. to 3rd A.C.) contain no references to the Kalutara, Galle and Mātara districts: nor are there any Brāhmī inscriptions or early ruins in these districts. It can therefore be assumed that this south-western area was not then populated. Its limits would have 12 JOURNAL, R.A.S. (CEYLON) New Series, Vol. VI, Special Number

been approximately Kalutara at one extremity and Tangalla at the other and they appear to be represented on Ptolemy's map by the gap between Noubartha and Odoka. The re-orientation of the map, based on the identification of Modouttou and Nagadiba, makes a line joining Noubartha and Nagadiba slightly to west of a true north-south line. Noubartha (like Abaratha) appears to have been a name ending in -rata and its position was in the vicinity of Pāṇadura or Kalutara. Odoka was probably near the mouth of the Valave Ganga, the River Azanos being that river: the ancient monastery near the mouth of the Valavē Ganga was called, according to a 2nd century inscription in situ, Godapavata, and to it were assigned the customs duties of the port of the same name: Odoka may be a corruption of Godapavata. The Orneon Headland (' Headland of Birds ') may correspond to Hambanto'a point. Dagana is described as 'sacred to the Moon' and is a misrendering of some such name as Candagama or Sandagama. Korkobara probably stands for the port near Mahagama (present Tissamahārāma) called Sakkharasobbha and its location was probably between Būndala and Palatuţāna. The Cape of Dionysios was one of the points, Okanda or Potana or Patanangala, on the south-east coast. To return to the north-west coast, Cape Galiba is very probably Kudiramalai point and Galiboi the inhabitants of that locality. Margana is certainly the town of Magana mentioned in 1st and 2nd century inscriptions and was at the mouth of the Moderagam Aru. Iogana in all probability is identical with the port of Uruvela near the mouth of the Kalā Ova. Cape Anarismoundou was probably Kalpitive point and it seems to embody the name Simoundou by which. according to Ptolemy, Taprobane was formerly called. The River Soana is the Gona-nadi, the ancient name for the Kalā Ova, and the Soanoi the inhabitants of the Gona district, the lower course of the river. Sindokanda may have been in the neighbourhood of Puttalam and the Haven of Priapis near Chilaw. Anoubingara also occurs as a placename in the north. Prasodes Bay may be the Bay of Negombo and the Headland of Zeus the promontory of Colombo. Ptolemy places Maagrammon to south-east of Anuradhapura and south-west of Nagadiba. He locates Nagadiba to east of Anurādhapura when it is actually north. The corrected position of Maagrammon would be to northward of Anuradhapura. Its identification with Mahagantota or Mahiyangana cannot be sustained. Mahaganto a was then known as Kahagamatota (P. Kacchakatittha). The Dipavainsa states that Upatissanagara, the capital before Anuradhapura, situated 10 or 12 miles to north of the latter, was a prosperous and large market-town. A locality to north-eastward of Anuradhapura was called Utarapura in epigraphs of the 1st and 2nd centuries. Maagrammon probably represents Upatissanagara which may be synonymous also with Utarapura. Adeisamon was on a prolongation northward of the line Anourogrammon-Maagrammon and in the vicinity of Vavūniva or even further north-east. Oulispada should be in the region of Buttala and Podouke in the locality Kalāvāva-Kurunāgala. Nakadouba probably

refers to the Nāgamahāthūpa, the largest thūpa at Mahāgāma. The Sennoi inhabited the Mullaitīvu district. Tarakhoi suggests the clan name Tarasa (P. Taraccha) and their abode was the northern part of Trincomalee district. Diordouloi may be a corruption of Digamadulla (P. Dighayumandala), the present Gal Oya Valley in Batticaloa district. The Boumasanoi occupied the ancient Kalaniva kingdom. The Nageiroi were a people in the Mahāgāma area: Nāgas are mentioned in the vicinity of Cittalapabbata (Situlparva) in the 1st century. The Gatiba mountains were probably the hills of Kuncuttu Koralē. Ptolemy undoubtedly got some Sinhalese place-names and their positions nearly right and he achieved a tolerable likeness to the actual shape of Ceylon. His Greek names include some transliterations of Sinhalese names. Some names are distorted and others, probably, imaginary. His orientation was faulty and his idea of the size of Ceylon seriously wrong. Nevertheless, the information which he gives shows that in the 2nd century Western mariners and traders had acquired a remarkably good knowledge of the topography of Ceylon.

By the 4th century the Indian sea-borne trade was monopolised by the Axumites but there was a revival of Roman commerce with the East in the reign of Constantine: and it is recorded that in the year 36r an embassy from Serendivi (Ceylon) was received by the Emperor Julian. In the work, Pseudo-Kallisthenes, of the 5th century, there is an account by a Theban scholar of what he had learned about the Island of Taprobane, inhabited by the people called the Makrobioi ('the long-lived'). The Theban was told that in the neighbourhood of Taprobane there were a thousand other islands in the Erythraen Sea lying close to each other and one group of them, known as the Maniolai, possessed the magnet stone which attracted ships bolted with iron nails: Taprobane had five, large navigable rivers.

Chinese merchant ships had begun to visit Ceylon from pre-Christian times. Embassies from the Sinhalese king to the Chinese Emperor visited China in the 1st and 2nd centuries. The great traveller, the Chinese monk, Fa-Hsien, came to Ceylon, reaching it after a voyage of 14 days from Tamluk at the mouth of the Ganges, in the year 411 and stayed here two years. He calls Ceylon 'the Land of the Lion' and gives its size as 50 vojanas from east to west and 30 vojanas from north to south, and he says that there were nearly 100 small islands off the Ceylon coast, distant from each other 2 to 40 miles, all subject to the main Island, and that they produced chiefly pearls and precious stones. There was one island, about 3 miles square, where the Mani beads (fine pearls used for rosaries) were found. Fa-Hsien says the climate was very agreeable, there being no distinction between summer and winter, and cultivation was carried on without regard to seasons. He gives a description of the City of Anuradhapura, of the great procession of the Tooth Relic, and of the cremation ceremony of a much revered monk of the Mihintalē 14 JOURNAL, R.A.S. (CEYLON) New Series, Vol. VI, Special Number

monastery. He observed many Sabaen (South Arabian) merchants in Ceylon. Fa-Hsien sailed from Ceylon in a large merchant vessel on which there were over 200 souls: the ship sailed eastward with a fair wind for two days, then a storm raged for 13 days and nights and they arrived alongside of an island where they stopped the leaks in the ship and again proceeded on their way, finally reaching Java after 90 or more days of sailing. Several Sinhalese embassies as well as parties of Sinhalese Buddhist monks and nuns went to China in the 5th century.

Sources of external information about Ceylon for the 4th and 5th centuries, barring the account of Fa-Hsien, are very scanty. By the second quarter of the 6th century, Ceylon had become the entrepot of sea trade between the West and the Far East. Chinese and other Far-Eastern ships sailed into its harbours carrying their cargoes of silks, while from the West came the vesssels of the Persians and Axumites. In the ports of Ceylon these merchants from East and West, as well as the merchants of India, met and exchanged their goods and purchased the products of Ceylon. The 'Christian Topography' of Cosmas Indicopleustes is a work of this period and Ceylon is described in various passages in it as follows:— Taprobane is a large oceanic island lying in the Indian sea. Among the Indians it goes by the name of Sielediba, but the Pagans call it Taprobane, wherein is found the stone, hyacinth. Around it there is a great number of small islands, all of them having fresh water and coconut trees. They nearly all have deep water close up to them. The great island, as the natives allege, has a length of 300 gaudia (gāvuta) and a breadth of as manythat is, of 900 miles. There are two kings in the Island who are at feud with each other. The one possesses the hyacinth, and the other the rest of the Island wherein are the port and the emporium of trade. The emporium is one much resorted to by the people in those parts. The Island has also a church of Persian Christians who have settled there, and a presbyter who is appointed from Persia, and a deacon and a complete ecclesiastical ritual. The natives and their kings are, however, heathens in religion. In this Island they have many temples, and in one situated on an eminence is a single hyacinth as big as a large pine-cone, the colour of fire, and flashing from a distance, especially when the sunbeams play around it-a matchless sight. As its position is central, the Island is a great resort of ships from all parts of India, and from Persia and Ethiopia, and in like manner it despatches many of its own to foreign ports. And from the inner countries, I mean China and other marts in that direction, it receives silks, aloes, clove-wood, sandalwood and their other products, and these it again passes on to the outer ports, I mean to Male (Malabar), where pepper grows, and to Kalliana (near Bombay), where copper is produced and sesame wood and materials for dress; for it is also a great mart of trade; and to Sindu (Sindh, the lower valley of the Indus) also, where musk or castor is got, as well as androstachus, and to Persia and the Homerite country, and to Adule (in the Red Sea).

Receiving in return the traffic of these marts, and transmitting it to the inner ports, the Island exports to each of these at the same time her own products ... Out in the Ocean at the distance of five days and nights from the mainland lies Sielediba, that is, Taprobane . . . Sielediba being thus in a central position with reference to the Indies, and possessing the hyacinth, receives wares from all trading marts, and again distributes them over the world, and thus becomes a great emporium . . . The kings of various parts of India possess elephants. But the king of Sielediba obtains by purchase both the elephants and horses which he possesses. The price he pays for the elephants depends upon the number of cubits they reach in height. For the height is measured from the ground in cubits, and the price is reckoned at so many pieces of money for each cubit, say 50 or a 100 pieces, or even more. His horses again are imported from Persia, and the traders from whom he buys them he exempts from the payment of custom-house dues. Procopius confirms the statement of Cosmas that the Abyssinian sailors of Adulis, now the main market for trade exchanges between the East and the Byzantine Empire, were to be seen in the Ceylon ports. Arab sea-faring liad nearly disappeared in the 6th century, but about the middle of the 7th century had secured domination over the ocean routes to the West and all that trade was in their hands. The Chinese retained control of the seaborne traffic to the Far East. The Sinhalese and Chinese exchanged embassies in the 7th and 8th centuries. A Chinese text recounts the visit to Ceylon in the years 718 and 710 of a princely and learned Indian monk named Vajrabodhi: from Anurādhapura he travelled into Ruhuna and thence to Adam's Peak, which is described as a wild region. Chinese sources describe the voyages of the Po-sse (? Persian Zoroastrians) to Ceylon and Maiaya and say that they sailed in large ships. The visits of European ships and sailors to Indian and Ceylon ports had ceased in the 5th century and a thousand years were to pass before they re-entered Eastern waters.

References to Ceylon from the 9th to the 13th centuries are numerous in the South Indian inscriptions of this period: they occur chiefly in connection with the invasions and conquests of Cevlon by the Pandyans and Colas. In the 9th century pirates from the Gulf of Cutch raided snipping off the coasts of Ceylon as well as widely over the Indian Ocean. Muhammadan merchants had established a trading station in Colombo at least as early as the year 949: they had begun to trade with China in the 8th century. From 993 to 1070 Ceylon was a province of the Cola Empire: the powerful Cola navy helped in the conquest of Ceylon and the Maldive Islands and in the extension of Cola power to Malaya and Java. The Sinhalese kingdom regained some degree of prosperity and power in the 12th century, but the 13th century was a very disturbed period, wracked by civil war, invasion and pillage, and towards its close Cevlon became a feudatory of the Pandyan Empire. In 1283, Bhuvanekabahu I sent an embassy to the Sultan of Egypt with an offer to trade in cinnamon, precious 16 JOURNAL, R.A.S. (CEYLON) New Series, Vol. VI. Special Number

stones and elephants. A well-known traveller who visited Ceylon about 1293 was Marco Polo.

The principal ports of Ceylon, except Gokanna (*Trincomalee*), were those on the northern and north-western coasts, by far the most important being Mahātittha (*Māntai*). All were intimately associated with the pearl and chank fisheries in the shallow seas of this region. This coast was also the most vulnerable part of the Sinhalese kingdom because it faced the Coromandel coast of South India from which the Cōlas and Pāṇḍyans embarked upon their invasions of Ceylon. These invasions compelled a permanent change, for geographical reasons, in the site of the capital of the Sinhalese kings from Anurādhapura to Polonnaruva in 1070.

(C). Territorial Divisions

Rohaṇadesa or Rohaṇa-maṇḍala (Sinh. Ruhuṇu-danaviya) and Malayadesa or Malaya-maṇḍala (Sinh. Malamaṇḍulu) were two principalities which are mentioned from the earliest historical times. Rohaṇa comprised all the area to the east of the Mahavāli Gaṅga together with lower $\bar{U}va$ and the Hambantoṭa, Māṭara and Galle districts, and its capital was at Mahāgāma (present Tissamahārāma), while Malaya extended over the entire mountain region and its foothills. Rāṭaraṭṭha is not mentioned by that name in the Chronicle till the oth century, but it was historically the earliest principality, the realm of the rulers at Anurādhapura until B.C. 161 when Duṭṭhagāmaṇi Abhaya united the whole Island into one kingdom.

Rājaraṭṭha was divided into four divisions named after the cardinal directions and the most important of these divisions was Dakkhiṇadesa or Dakkhiṇapassa (Dakuṇpasa in inscriptions): from the end of the 6th century it became the principality of the Yuvarāja and this continued to be the practice till the 12th century. Towards the end of the 12th century, Rājaraṭṭha was changed to Patiṭṭhāraṭṭha (Sinh. Pihiṭiraṭa; in inscriptions, Pihiṭirajaya or Piṭirajaya), and Dakkhiṇadesa and Malaya were amalgamated to form Māyā-raṭṭha (Māyā-rajaya), so-called because it was the appanage of the Māyā (équivalent to Mahayā or Mahapā, P. Mahādiṇāda): together with Rohaṇa whose name remained unchanged, they formed Tiṣīhala (Trisimhala-rajaya or Tunrajaya).

The boundary between Rājaraṭṭha and Rohaṇa was the Mahavāli Gaṅga, the largest river in Ceylon. At different times Rohaṇa was ruled by princes who were independent or semi-independent of the king at Anurādhapura. Revolts and uprisings usually originated there: so did the organisation of resistance to fight or expel a South Indian invader. The lines of communication from Rājaraṭṭha to Rohaṇa were long and over difficult terrain, and therefore vulnerable: even the Cōlas, during their conquest in the 11th century, made no serious attempt to occupy and administer Rohaṇa although they

carried out punitive expeditions. Economically, Rohana was a much less prosperous territory than Rājaraṭṭha. It had no irrigation works approaching the magnitude of those in Rājaraṭṭha, and the remains of its capital, Mahāgāma, bear no comparison with those of Anurādhapura or Polonnaruva.

Malaya, the mountain principality, was ruled from the 6th century to the 11th century by a junior prince styled the Malayarāja. Later, it lost importance and its administrator was not a member of the royal family. The mountain fastnesses afforded sanctuary to defeated rebels and absconders from justice. Economically, Malaya produced little agriculturally but it was a source of precious stones.

Up to about the 7th century the terms used for the largest territorial divisions were desa, passa (S. pasa), and janapada (S. danaviya). The term raṭṭha (S. raṭa) is absent in the Mahāvamsa although it occurs in the Pāli Commentaries. The inscriptions of the early centuries of the Christian era refer to district chieftains styled raṭiya or raṭika: one of them administered a sub-division called a kaṇṇika (kaṇiya in inscriptions). Other sub-divisions were known as rājī (rajiya in inscriptions), bīja (bīja or bijaka in inscriptions) and atana. The governors of the largest territorial divisions were princes or ministers. The title parumaka signified the aristocracy next below royalty but it did not necessarily confer territorial jurisdiction, although some of the parumakas were bojikas of certain localities. The gamika was the village headman.

In the medieval period (8th to 12th centuries) 'provinces' were clearly distinguished from 'districts': in contemporary inscriptions the provincial administrators are styled Pas-ladu and the district chiefs Raṭ-ladu. But there was no uniformity (which is the case even at present) in the designations of the major territorial divisions. The provinces were called passa or desa or padesa or janapada or maṇḍala (S. maḍulu). Raṭṭha was a district within a province except in the case of the principality of Rājaraṭṭha (S. Rajaraṭa). There were other anomalies: Rohaṇa, Malaya and Rājaraṭṭha had within them divisions also known as desa, passa, maṇḍala, janapada and raṭṭha. An alternative for the district designation raṭṭha was vagga (S. vaga or vaka). Maṇḍala, which signified a province in the medieval period, was used occasionally in the early period in a much more restricted sense. The older names of the sub-divisions (kaṇiya, rajiya, etc.) went out of use and were replaced by kuliya and bim.

(D). Roads

Roads were necessary at all times for the passage of bullock-drawn wagons and carts which were the vehicles in common use in Ceylon from the beginnings of history. Horse-drawn chariots were employed to a limited extent in war, though they probably always formed part

of the king's equipage. Elephants were doubtless used to draw open carts carrying specially heavy loads. Defined roads, with suitable gradients and bridges of adequate strength at river crossings, were required by all these types of vehicles for the purposes of traffic and trade, and were in existence in Ceylon always. Remains of ancient roads, some paved, and of ancient stone bridges still exist. Wooden bridges were more common than those of stone, but, as is to be expected, all have perished. The construction of one particular bridge across the Kalā Oya at a point northward of Giribāva by Parakkamabāhu's general, Senāpati Deva, is described as follows:— 'he (the Senāpati) at the instruction of the king, threw a long, very fine and very solid bridge across the river of the Kālavāpi, passable by files of elephants, horses and chariots, held together with iron bands and nails, made of beams of timber, and 20 cubits (30 feet) broad'. Causeways of stone were also constructed. The Pāli Chronicles differentiate between main highways or trunk roads (mahāmagga), roads (magga or maggānumagga), streets in towns (vīthi) and footpaths (ekapadikamagga or añjasa). The Sinhalese inscriptions, likewise, distinguish between roads (manga or manga) and streets (veya). Resthouses (ambalam of modern times) were provided at intervals on the roads so that travellers could shelter or rest. Nissanka Malla (1187-1196) states in an inscription:— 'in the course of inspecting the three kingdoms (Pihiti, Māyā and Ruhuna) in various ways, he (the King) fixed the distance of a gavuva and calling it a Niśśankagavuva, he caused inscribed milestones to be set up '. Several of these gāvuta or Niśśankagavuva pillars have been discovered along ancient roads, and Codrington has stated his opinion that the earlier Sinhalese gavuva was about 21 miles.

The Chronicles and Commentaries refer specifically to a few of the main highways:— (i) from Jambukola (near Kankesanturai) to Anurādhapura; (ii) from Mahātittha (Māntai) to Anurādhapura: this was an important commercial route as well as the path of the invader advancing from the seaport upon the capital; (iii) from Anuradhapura via the Kacchakatittha ford (Mahagantota), Mahiyangana and Buttala to Mahagama (Tissamaharama), joining the capitals of Rajarattha and Rohana: from Mihintale to Mahagantota on this route was o vojanas; (iv) from Mahāgāma to Dīghavāpi (near Irakkāmam in the Gal Ova Valley), o vojanas; (v) from Anuradhapura to Uruvela (at the mouth of the Kalā Ova), 5 vojanas; (vi) the East coast highroad, which passed through Chagama (Sākāmam); and (vii) the pilgrim road from Rajarattha to Adam's Peak which was greatly improved in the reign of Vijayabāhu I. There were many other highroads joining centres of population and trade, especially the ports, nakaras (forts or trading-stations) and nivamatanas (market-towns). In the towns, street-lines were laid down: Fa-Hsien (411-413) says that in Anurādhapura 'main streets and side streets were level and well-kept'. The main highway in the capital city was the Mangul-maha-veva

which ran through the north and south gates of the Citadel. The bunds of the larger tanks and of the major canals would have made excellent highways, as they do at this day (e.g. Kalāväva, Nuvaravāva, Kantalāy tank, Parākramasamudra, Tissavāva at Anurādhapura, Tissavāva at Tissamahārāma, Älahāra canal, Yōdavāva, Ridī-bāndiāla, Angamādilla-āļa and several others). The bunds of the smaller tanks would have formed the main footpaths, as they still do in the dry zone. The ancient Sinhalese, whose skill in irrigation engineering attained the highest degree of proficiency, would readily have understood how to make the best use of the contours in road construction and how to safeguard their roads against erosion by the action of water.

It might be added here that the *Kalu-gal-bämma* which runs across country for many miles in *Bintänna Pattu* and *Velassa Division* and was thought to be a built-up highway, is not the work of man but a natural dyke.

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CHAPTER II

THE BATTICALOA DISTRICT

(A). Pānama Pattu

Pānama Pattu is the southernmost division of the administrative district of Batticaloa and the greater part of it is under forest. The only perennial river is the Kumbukkan Oya which is the boundary between the Batticaloa and Hambantota districts. The ancient irrigation works were of no great dimensions but the region held quite a large population because there are many remains of Buddhist monasteries, some of them dating from the 2nd century B.C. Massive rock-groups. many over 250 feet in height, and extensive outcrops of rock rise from the level ground every few miles, some from the seashore itself, and the ancient Sinhalese made use of these commanding and picturesque sites, as they did everywhere, to construct their cave monasteries and thūpas. The coast-line is indented by several salt lagoons, but the only natural harbour is Arugam Bay. As in the adjacent Yāla area, a notable feature is the absence of inscriptions and of architectural and sculptural remains of the medieval period (oth to 13th centuries): this suggests some considerable depopulation of the region before this period, probably owing to disease, as stated in an early Portuguese map.1

The extensive ruins, consisting of numerous caves, at $Bambaragastal\bar{a}va$, nearly 4 miles west of $\bar{O}kanda$, are named Nakapavata in a pre-Christian cave inscription there. This, in all probability, is the Nāgapabbata Vihāra founded by Goṭhābhaya, ruler of Rohaṇa, very early in the 2nd century B.C.²

Next in known date of foundation are the ruins at Karandahela, about a mile north of the 14th mile on the Pottuvil-Monerāgala road. This is a lofty hill with the remains of a thūpa and other buildings at its foot and caves at the higher levels. An inscription of the 1st century in situ states that Habutagala Vihara (the ancient name of the monastery) was founded by Kakavaṇa Tisa Maharaja (Kākavaṇṇa Tissa or Kāvaṇ Tissa, ruler or Rohaṇa in the 2nd quarter of the 2nd century B.C.). The name Habutagala may be synonymous with Hambugallaka Vihāra of the Mahāvamsa, the place where the thera Tissa persuaded the offended Ministers of Vaṭṭagāmaṇi Abhaya to become, reconciled with their king. Other inscriptions, also of the 1st century, give the names of three tanks granted to Habutagala

 $_{\rm I.}$ 'Brāhmī Inscriptions in the Yāla East Reserve', Sir Paul Pieris Felicitation Volume, 58ff.

^{2.} Ibid., 60-62; C.J.S. (G) II, 115, 176.

Vihara:— Dahuliya, Gabidatatiri, and Hamanavira: three or four breached tanks now exist in the vicinity.³

The cave inscriptions at the ancient monastery at Bōvattagala, about 3 miles north-west of Kūmuna, are of considerable interest in that they record donations made to the Sangha by the descendants, probably contemporaneous with Dutthagāmani Abhaya (B.C. 161-137), of the once independent royal dynasty of Kataragama which was dispossessed by Gothābhaya of Rohana. The inscriptions of this dynasty, which are associated with those at Koṭṭadāmuhela, a few miles to the west, carry the distinctive emblem of a fish and they give the names of five generations of royal personages:— (i) Gamini: (ii) his 10 sons, onc of whom was Raja Uti; (iii) his grandsons, Damaraja and prince Abaya; (iv) his great-grandchildren, the princes Mahatiśa and Tiśa, and the princess Anuradi; and (v) his great-granddaughter, princess Savera. Later inscriptions at Bōvattagala indicate that the monastery was in a flourishing condition up to the 7th century.

A township named Uti, possibly connected with Raja Uti of the Kalaragama dynasty, is mentioned in an inscription of the 2nd century B.C. at $K\bar{o}ngala$, a rocky hill about 4 miles north of $K\bar{u}mana$, where there are several inscribed caves. Inscriptions of the 5th century at this same site mention the places Citagalaya and Mayulavila: the latter name is repeated in a 4th century inscription at Akuruke!ugala, about 20 miles further north.⁵

Kiripokunahela, about 2 miles south of Bambaragastalāwa, was also a pre-Christian cave monastery. A 5th century inscription here records the construction of the rock-cut steps by a resident of Kunarivata.

The village Kaniyutagama is mentioned in a pre-Christian cave inscription at $Vih\bar{a}regala$, a remote group of ruins about 9 miles west of $\bar{O}kanda$.

Other pre-Christian Buddhist monasteries bearing contemporary inscriptions occur at:— (i) Veheragalkanda, about 10 miles west of Ōkanda; (ii) Kudimbigala, 2 miles north-west of Ōkanda, a very picturesque and dominating rock; (iii) Kiralāna, 4 miles north-west of Ōkanda; (iv) Nīlagiriva, a lofty rock, 3 miles south of the 10th mile on the Pottuvil-Monerāgala road; (v) Rotjakulam, 3 miles from Pottuvil, where the inscription is by a leader of bowmen; (vi) Tisnāula-kema, north of Hālava; (vii) Nāval-Ār-kulam, where there is a solitary cave carrying an inscription by the son of a prince who was a ma-ter

of elephant-trainers; (viii) $Budub\bar{a}va$, about 5 miles from Vadagama; and (ix) $L\bar{e}nama$, about 6 miles west of $\bar{O}kanda$. There is little doubt that systematic exploration will reveal more ancient sites in this area.⁸

Pānama-väva Vihāra, by Pānama tank and about 2 miles from the village, was also founded in prc-Christian times, as a cave inscription attests. Later inscriptions of the 5th to 7th centuries at this site give its ancient name as Panava-rajamaha-vahara, situated in the subdivision named Vajana. Also mentioned are the places:— (i) Uḍagama: (ii) Lunugamana, doubtless associated with one of the salt lagoons in the vicinity and (iii) Veṇijana.

At 'Line'-malai (so-called because an old survey line runs by it), a small, rocky hill about 2 miles west of Rottakulam, there are inscriptions by three early kings, Bhātikābhaya (B.C. 22-A.C. 7), Mahādāthikamahānāga (7—19) and Kanittha Tissa (167—186). The site is named Sipavata Vihara in all the inscriptions, a name unknown from the Chronicles, but perhaps identical with the later Sigam of the Sīgiri Graffiti. In the inscription of Kanittha Tissa the grantor was the Rativa (district administrator) who administered the division named Huvahaka, which is identical with Huvaca-kannika mentioned in the Mahāvamsa as a district in Rohana in the 1st century. If Huvāca-kaṇṇikā was a sub-division of the area afterwards known as Hūvarattha (present $\bar{U}va$), then Hūvarattha extended in the 1st century as far as the sea near Pottuvil. In Huvāca-kannikā, Mahādāthikamahānāga built the Cūlanāgapabbata or Cūlanāgalena Vihāra which was considered to be an ideal place for meditation: it has not been identified. The other place-names which occur in the 'Line'malai inscriptions are: — (i) Dakapunaka; (ii) Maha Girigamaka, where there was an irrigation canal; (iii) Nakamulaya, the seat of the Ratiya of Huvahaka; (iv) Darakada tank in Daramaraya; (v) Coraviva tank and (vi) the tract of fields named Mala.10

Kālāyana-kaṇṇikā was a sub-division of Rohaṇa at the beginning of the 1st century and was an area extending approximately from Pottuvil to Pānama. In this district Mahādāṭhikamahānāga (7-19) built Maṇināgapabbata Vihāra. At the ruins now known as Rātravela or Sāstravela, close to the sea and not far from the mouth of the Nāval Ār, where there are the remains of a colossal thūpa, there is an inscription of this king in which he records his benefaction to the vihāra at the site which is named Bohogiri Nakapavata Vihara: this, doubtless, is the Maṇināgapabbata Vihāra of the Chronicle Places named in the inscription as assigned to the Vihāra are:— (i) Velamuka or Elamuka, a name which suggests a place on the coast; (ii) Urakamaka,

^{3.} M. 33. 71; U.C.R. VII, No. 4, 238.

^{4.} C.J.S. (G) II, 99 (footnote 2), 100, 114, 115, 175, 176; Sir Paul Pieris Felicitation Volume, 65-68.

^{5.} Sir Paul Pieris Felicitation Volume, 63.

^{6.} Ibid., 62.

^{7.} Ibid., 64.

^{8.} Parker, 432; U.C.R. VIII, No. 2,117; C.J.S. (G) II, 200; U.C.R. VII, No. 4, 246.

^{9.} C.J.S. (G) II, 113, 114.

^{10.} M. 34, 90; 60, 66; M.T. 637, 21; E.H.B. 120; U.C.R. VIII, No. 2, 127: IX, No. 1, 42: Sig. Graff., I, App. C.

(iii) Hujikada and (iv) Bira(.) gayara. In the same district of Kālāyana-kaṇṇikā, the same king built the Kalanda Vihāra: in a later passage, Mahāsena (275—301) is credited with the building of Kalanda Vihāra at Brāhmaṇagāma in Rohaṇa, destroying a Brahmanical temple there and erecting his vihāra on its site. Again, Aggabodhi VII (772—777) is said to have built Kalanda Vihāra. The ruins of Kalanda Vihāra have not yet been identified.¹¹

Mahādāṭhikamahānāga also built the Pāsāṇadīpika Vihāra. The name fits the large, isolated rock now called Nīlagiriya, south of Lahugala. To honour the Mahāthera of Pāsāṇadīpika Vihāra, Dappula (circa 650), the ruler of Rohaṇa, built for him the Rohaṇa or Ruhuṇu Vihāra. In two inscriptions of the 14th century at the site now called Magul-maha-vihāra (about 7 miles west of Pottuvil), inscribed by command of a Queen named Vihāramahādevī, who was the chief consort of two brother kings named Perakumba (=Parakkama) who vanquished the Cōļas and ruled over Rohaṇa, the site is named Rūṇu-maha-vera and is said to have been founded by king Dāsen-käli (Dhātusena). Notwithstanding the discrepancy between the Chronicles and the inscription as to the name of the founder, the identity of Rohaṇa Vihāra is established. 12

Mahādāṭhikamahānāga (7—19) built the Samuddha or Samudda Vihāra on the banks of the Kubukanda-nadī, the present *Kumbukkan Oya*. The name suggests a situation near the sea. 15

An inscription of Kanitha Tissa (167—186) at Nelumpat Pokuna, about 5 miles north of Kūmana, gives the ancient name of the site as Gosagala Manavihara and grants to it shares in water-revenues at Mahanakaraka, presumably Anurādhapura.¹⁴

On the boundary between $P\bar{a}nama$ Pattu and the Badulla district and close to the north bank of the $H\bar{a}da$ Oya is a picturesque ruined site known as $N\bar{a}$ -maluva where there are several inscriptions dating from the 1st century B.C. to the 4th century A.C. In these inscriptions the site is named Giritisapavata-mahavihara. Two of the inscriptions are dated in the reign of Sirimekavana Aba Maharaja (Sirimeghavana, 301-328). A territorial division named Mayuvelasa (in which the modern name Velassa might be contained) is mentioned: this division apparently extended over this area and in it was the village Mahagama. Other place-names mentioned are:— (i) Vilagama; (ii) Vahiraka and (iii) Balasataka. One inscription names the Minister Labakanaka Aba, a member of the Lambakanna clan.

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At the ruins at *Galahitiōdai*, about 2 miles southward of *Lahugala* tank, there are inscriptions of the 1st, 3rd and 4th centuries. The site is named Ayapavata and the places Avadaka and Bamaviya are mentioned.

Akuruketugala is a ruined site about a mile from the last-named with two inscriptions of the 4th century. The ancient name of the site is given as Karapavata Mahavihara, and the places Garadara and Mayulavila (which also occurs at Kōngala) are mentioned.

The ruined site now known as *Veherakema*, about 6 miles southeast of *Lahugala*, is named Macala Vehera in a 7th century inscription *in situ*. The inscription is by a king named Vahaka Maharaja, a ruler not mentioned in the Chronicles, and he declares that he built the Cetiya at this spot.¹⁵

(B). The Gal Oya Valley

The Gal Oya Valley, or, more strictly, the Area of Authority of the Gal Oya Development Board, occupies, for the greater part, the ancient and important territorial division called Dīghavāpi-maṇḍala or Dīghavāpi-raṭṭha in the Pāli Chronicles and Commentaries and Digāmaṇḍulu or Digāmaṇḍula in Sinhalese literature and inscriptions.¹¹⁶ Within this major division were sub-divisions styled maṇḍala, janavu (danaviya, P. janapada), vaga (synonymous with vaka, P. vagga) and kuliya, so that it bore the status of a province and not that of the normal raṭṭha or district.¹¹ It extended over both banks of the Gāḥha Gangā (Gal-hoy, present Gal Oya) and the area to north of the river was called, in a 10th century inscription, Metera-Digāmaṇḍulla.¹³ b

The name Dīghavāpi (which means literally 'long tank') goes back in legend and history to the earliest recorded times. It is stated in the Mahāvamsa that the Buddha on his third visit to Ceylon, after spending the day at the foot of Sumanakūṭa (Adam's Peak), 'set forth for Dīghavāpi, and there the Master seated himself with the brotherhood at the place where the Cetiya (afterwards) stood, and gave himself up to meditation to consecrate the spot'. The older Chronicle, the Dīpavamsa, has no reference to the visit to Sumanakūṭa: it says that the Buddha went to Dīghavāpi from the site of the later Kalyāni (Kälaniya) thūpa, travelling through the air, and that 'at the place of the Dīghavāpi Cetiya, the Buddha who was full of compassion to the world, descended from the air and again entered upon mystical meditation'. By this association with the Buddha, as

^{11.} M. 34. 89: 37. 41: 48. 70; M.T. 637, 19, 685; U.C.R. VII, No. 4, 243, note 51.

^{12.} M. 34. 91: 45. 54; Puj. 29; Raj. 57; E.Z. IV, 161.

^{13.} M. 34. 90; M.T. 606.

^{14.} Sir Paul Pieris Felicitation Volume, 64; A.S.C.A.R. 1934, 18.

^{15.} E.Z. IV, 143; SdhRv 315.

^{16.} M. 1. 78: 24. 2: 33. 9: 74. 110, 180: 75. 1, 10; Puj. 2; Raj. 33; A.S.C.A.R. 1953. 22.

^{17.} U.C.R. IX, No. 1, 20, 41.

^{18.} M. 48. 132; E.Z. IV. 75 (as corrected at E.Z. V, 139).

^{19.} M. 1. 77-79; D. 2. 58-60.

the Buddhists believed, Dīghavāpi became one of the 16 most sacred places of the Buddhists of Ceylon.

The traditions recorded in the Ceylon Chronicles about the Indo-Arvan ancestors of the Sinhalese, who came from Northern India and colonised the Island, preserve the names of some of the leaders who founded the first settlements, which were named after them. One of these leaders or chieftains was the noble Dighayu: and Dr. Paranavitana has made an important observation on the connection between Dīghāyu and Dīghavāpi. He says, 'the form Digā, as well as Digā (in Digāmadulla and Digāmandulu), presupposes an original Dīghāyu, and the place known as Dīghavāpi was possibly the same as the settlement named after Dighavu, referred to in chapter 9, verse 10 of the Mahāvamsa. In the identification of Dīghavāpi, it is, therefore, not necessary to look for a long tank '.20 The construction of a tank named Dighavāpi is nowhere recorded, and the inedieval Sinhalese name for the region did not include the element-vāpi (tank, S. -väva). It is quite possible, of course, that one of the tanks was called Dighavapi after the district, and it might well have been the first tank to have been constructed there, but the reservoir itself was not of such dimensions or importance to receive specific mention. Parker attempted to identify the breached tank now known as Mahakandiyaväva or Kandiankattu, about 6 miles south-west of Uhana, with the long tank, Dighavapi. Brohier describes it as follows:—'the reservoir was formed in the foothills of the Uva mountains by raising two short, low embankments across the hollows in a central stretch of high ground. Judged from the contour map it was perhaps 6 miles in length, and possibly not much more—if anything less, than one mile in width on the average . . . Its reputed distributory channels which led to the fields appear to have been spread, over the Batticaloa district, almost up to the coast, for 40 miles or more...The size and shape of Mahakandiya Wewa, however, yet remain a matter of controversy, although the modern topographical maps reduce the margin of error '21 Later history says nothing about any enlargement or restoration of an original tank named Dighavāpi: indeed, there is complete silence in the Chronicles about a tank of that name although references are numerous to the place and the district with the same name.

The identity of a tank with a long bund named Dīghavāpi may well be questioned, but there is no historical doubt that this region was, 22 centuries ago, one of the most important food producing areas in the principality of Rohana (Ruhuna). The eastern frontier of the Tamil conqueror, Elāra, in the first half of the 2nd century B.C., was the Mahavāli Ganga: along it, from Mahiyangana to the sea.

Kākavanna Tissa maintained garrisons at a number of fords to guard against invasion of his own territory of Rohana. The Chronicle states that Kākavanna Tissa stationed his second son, the prince Tissa, at Dīghavāpi with troops and chariots 'in order to guard the open country . 22 This statement is difficult to understand. Since the river-line was defended, an attack down the east coast, through Dighavāpi, could not be delivered unless the river defences were first breached. Furthermore, the Dighavapi district was too remote to supply timely reinforcements to threatened troops on the river, and, it was far distant from the direct line of march from any point of break-through on the river to Kākavanna Tissa's capital, Mahāgāma (Tissamahārāma). Therefore, the forces commanded by prince Tissa in the Dighavāpi district could have played but a limited role in any general scheme for the defence of Rohana against Elara. We know, however, from epigraphical sources, that up to this time no king had established his authority over the whole of Ceylon: there were rulers, styled raja in their inscriptions, independent of each other, in various regions in the Island, and in Rohana itself there was the recently suppressed Kataragama dynasty which held sway over the south-east of Cevlon and part of the Batticaloa district.²³ It may well be that it was to protect Rohana against these internal, potential enemies, and not against Elāra, that the prince Tissa was stationed at Dīghavāpi.

In B.C. 161, when Elara had been overthrown and the whole of Ceylon united, for the first time, under the sole rule of one Sinhalese monarch, King Dutthagamani Abhaya (Dutugamunu), the same prince Tissa (the new king's younger brother and heir to the throne) was again appointed to reside at Dighavapi 'to direct the work of harvest': and there he remained for 23 years until the last year of his brother's reign.24 The importance of the Dīghavāpi district, it may be conjectured from this subsequent statement, lay not so much in its military significance as in its value as one of the principal sources of food supply at that time. The vice-royalty of the prince Tissa in this region as well as over the greater part of Eastern Ceylon is still remembered in local tradition which ascribes to Tissa Kumāraya many of the ruins which still survive. The Chronicles record that while prince Tissa resided at Dīghavāpi his two sons built each a Vihāra, in that region. The eldest son, Lanjatissa, built the beautiful Kumbhila or Girikumbhila Vihāra, which has been identified by recently discovered inscriptions in situ as the ruins near Bakkiälla. The younger son, Thūlathana, built the Kandara Vihāra, also called Alakandara and Lākandara. The Pāli Commentaries mention viharas named Lokandara, Lokantara and Lokuttara which

^{20.} Note 1 to E.Z. V, 134.

^{21.} Parker, 'Ancient Ceylon', 396; Brohier, 'Ancient Irrigation Works in Ceylon', III, 42, 44.

^{22.} M. 23. 16: 24. 2.

^{23.} C.J.S. (G) II. 99, 100, 175, 176; Sir Paul Pieris Felicitation Volume, 65-67.

^{24.} M. 24. 57, 58: 32. 2.

Cetiya, but whether this was identical with ancient Dīghavāpi (Dīghanakha) Cetiya is not certain: the ruined monument at Vēraiadi, near Irakkāmam, was locally known as Nakha-vehera prior to its reoccupation by the Sangha about 1924, since which time it has been popularly, and probably correctly, known as Dīghavāpi Cetiya.

by Kittisirirājasīha in the middle of the 18th century to the Nakha

At Rājagala or Rāssahcla, the large rocky hill on the eastern side of Divulāna tank, there are many drip-ledged caves, the former abode of eremite monks, and about 20 of these caves bear inscriptions in the script of the 2nd and 1st centuries B.C. Five of these epigraphs record the donation of some of the caves to the Saṅgha by two sons of Saddhātissa (who is styled Devanapiya Maharaja Gamani Tiśa) and their wives: one son is styled Maha Aya (great prince) signifying that he was the eldest son, and the names of his wives are given as Budadata and Yahaśini, while the other son is called Tiśa Aya (prince Tiśa) and his wife is named Samika.²⁷ Maha Aya afterwards became king as Lañjatissa (B.C. 119—110) but a prince named Tissa who was a son of Saddhātissa is not mentioned in the Chronicles. In one of the inscriptions the name of the hill may be read doubtfully as Dhanatiśapavata: Gothābhaya, ruler of Rohaṇa, the grandfather of Saddhātissa, is said to have founded a vihāra named Dānapabbata.²⁸

The Kuñjarahīnaka Vihāra, also called Kandarahīnaka, built by king Lañjatissa, was probably in Dīghavāpi district: and the Pācīnagharaka Vihāra, which existed in the 1st century, was, if not in Dīghavāpi district, just outside it to the west or north-west.²⁹ In these early days the distance from Dīghavāpi to Mahāgāma (*Tissamahārāma*) was reckoned as 9 yojanas (70 to 80 miles): the ancient route is not specified.³⁰

There are other known ancient sites in the Gal Oya Valley where there are inscriptions which date these ruins back to the 2nd or 1st 28 JOURNAL, R.A.S. (CEYLON) New Series, Vol. VI, Special Number

century B.C. On a hill about a mile north-east of Damana there is a group of 7 caves with inscriptions: one cave was donated by the wife of a chieftain, another by a village headman. On the hill, Ganēgama-kanda, above the village of Vadināgala, there is a similar group of inscribed caves donated by, amongst others, the local village corporation, a village headman and a householder. In village No. 10 at Uhana there is an unusual epigraph which reads, 'the grove of the monk Kubira', while at $Am \nmid \bar{a}rai$ there is a cave inscription which states that the cave was donated by 'the group of twelve men'. At Sangamankanda, just inland of the 53 3/4 milepost, is an extensive outcrop of rock mounted by rock-cut steps and crowned by a breached thūpa. A cave inscription and two rock inscriptions of pre-Christian date occur at Mullikulam-malai, near Pālamunai.³¹

Inscriptions of the early centuries A.C. occur at a few other sites, also monastic. On the rock at Vērapudāva, near Tōṭṭama, there is a worn inscription of the 2nd century and another of the 7th century. At Pokunudeka, 6 miles from Uhana, 3 inscriptions of the 3rd/4th century occur, and one of them is by a district chieftain (raṭiya) concerning the cutting of the rock-cut steps: none of them gives the ancient name of the vihāra. At Kondavaṭṭavan tank there are scattered ruins which may or may not have formed a single monastery in ancient times. A pre-Christian inscription is the oldest epigraph. Next in date are two inscriptions of the early centuries A.C. inscribed on a boulder in the upper reaches of the tank, and one of them gives the ancient name of the monastery as Ahali-araba-vihara, a name not recorded in the Chronicles. Not far away is an inscribed stone pillar, the contents of which will be described later.

At the extensive ancient monastery on Rājagala or Rāssahela (already mentioned in connection with the cave inscriptions there of the sons of Saddhātissa) there are also three rock inscriptions of the reign of Mahinda II (777-797) which have been edited in Epigraphia Zeylanica.³³ Mahinda II was the king who, after subduing rebellion in Rohaṇa, decreed the Gāļha Gangā (Gal Oya), in place of the Mahaväli Ganga, as the future boundary between Rājaraṭṭha and Rohaṇa. The three epigraphs record grants of land to Arittārā-vehera, the 8th century name of the site, situated in the sub-division of Lam-janavu (=Lam-danaviya) by (i) Äpāy Daļsiva (Ādipāda Dāṭhāsiva of the Cūlavamsa),³⁴ a ruler of Rohaṇa, (ii) Sen, a high dignitary of Rohaṇa, and (iii) Vīrāmkurā, the administrator of the Lam-janavu area. The lands granted to the Vihāra were situated in the villages of:—

(i) Kalalväli, in Lam-janavu sub-district (the area around Divulāna, probably extending to Uhana);

^{25.} D. 20. 8, 10; M. 33. 14, 15; E.H.B. 66, 83, 123.

^{26.} M. 33. 10, 11; Puj. 18; Raj. 44.

^{27.} A.S.C.A.R. 1935, para 39; U.C.R. VII, No. 4, 244.

^{28.} Dhv. 31.

^{29.} M. 33. 27; E.M. 33. 26; E.H.B. 66.

^{30.} E.H.B. 30.

^{31.} A.S.C.A.R., 1953, 28: 1954, 36; C.J.S. (G) II, 119.

^{32.} A.S.C.A.R., 1954, 36, No. 13.

^{33.} E.Z., IV. 169-176.

^{34.} Cul. 48. 132: 49. 10-13.

- (iii) Mahāvägaņā, in Saratväga sub-division;
- (iv) Guļavälla;
- (v) Mivangamu, which may be identical with Muvangamuva, 3 miles south of Ampārai;
- (vi) Māļatta (not the same as Mālavatthu).

Mālavatthu-maṇdala or Malvatu-maṇdala or Malvatu-kuliya was the local sub-district around the village of Mālavatthu, modern Malvattai, between $Amp\bar{a}rai$ and Sammanturai: this village was granted in the middle of the 7th century to Ariyākari Vihāra, a monastery in Rohana. 35

The pillar inscription at Kondavattavan has been edited by Dr. Paranavitana³⁶ and is of great interest 'for the light it throws on the social and economic conditions which prevailed in Ceylon during the 9th and 10th centuries'. It is dated in the 10th year (934) of king Dappula IV. In substance it is an edict regulating certain aspects of the administration of the village of Äragam (present Kondavattavan). situated in Metera Digamandulla (Digamandulla to north of the Gal Oya), the revenues of which were enjoyed at the time by the Dandanāyaka named Rakus of Sangvā (a place-name) who later became the King's Commander-in-Chief (Seneviradun, P. Senāpati). The richer landlords of this time, particularly if they were absentee landlords, were permitted to farm their revenues to lessees or revenuefarmers who dealt direct with the tenants and collected the landlord's dues on a commission basis. This system of lease was called patta, a word of Tamil origin, and is still practised in South India but had gone out of use in Ceylon in the 16th century.

The Dighavāpi district attained historical importance for the last time during the reign of Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186). It was a centre of fierce resistance to that monarch's attempt to extend his authority over the principality of Rohana. Before his accession to the throne, Parakkamabāhu liad waged a long and bitter, but eventually successful, war with Mānābharana, the ruler of Rohana, but all the fighting took place along the Mahaväli Ganga and in the Polonnaruva area: when Manabharana finally suffered defeat and gave up the struggle, Parakkamabāhu did not exploit his success by pursuing him into Rohana. On his death bed, Manabharana is said to have commanded the princes of his family to submit themselves to Parakkamabāhu, but this injunction was not heeded. The Tooth and Bowl Relics. indispensable to sovereignity over the whole of Ceylon, were in Mānābharaṇa's possession and, on his death, passed to his mother, Oueen Sugalā. When Parakkamabāhu celebrated his consecration at Polonnaruva as the successor of Gajabāhu, ruler of Rājarattha, the

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ceremony was performed without the Relics. At the beginning of his reign he proceeded to subjugate Rohana in order to obtain forcible possession of the Relics, and the people of Rohana stood firmly behind Queen Sugalā in resisting aggression. Parakkamabāhu's troops, commanded by the Lankadhikarin Kitti entered Dighavapi district from Erāliulu ($\bar{E}r\bar{a}v\bar{u}r$, 8 miles northward of Batticaloa), captured a fortified position at Givulaba (possibly Divulāna) and advanced to Uddhagāma (Uhana) where they entrenched themselves and stayed three months, making forays on pockets of resistance in the vicinity. The next objective was Hihobu, a well-fortified place, protected by trenches and thorn fences: this was captured, as well as another strong point at Kirindagāma, and the invading forces then occupied and encamped at Dīghavāpi (Vēraiadi). At this juncture all these troops were diverted to the Moneragala area to reinforce other columns in a converging attack on Etimōlē where Queen Sugalā had taken up her position with the Relics: the attack succeeded and the Relics were captured, but the Queen escaped. The soldiers of Rohana now assembled in large and threatening strength in the Buttala district, open resistance and underground activities were intensified everywhere, Parakkamabāhu's forces found themselves under attack from flank and rear, and his generals met in conference to discuss the menacing military situation. They summed up the enemy's tactics in the following words:—' Our foes know their own country. When we come near them they disperse on every side, penetrate again into the territory that we have brought into our power, in order to conquer it, and vex the people'. They decided, therefore, that for the future they would post a strong garrison with capable officers in every area which they subdued to hold and consolidate their gains and prevent the enemy from re-entering or re-occupying it. Serious rebellion was reported to have broken out again in the Dignavapi district and it was agreed that, in the first instance, a concerted attack should be launched upon this region to bring it under complete submission before the scope of the military operations was further extended. Accordingly, the Lankādhikārins Kitti, Bhūta and Manju, starting from Vālivāsaragāma, a meeting-place of many roads outside and to westward of the Dīghavāpi district, marched eastward and, after fighting at Savanaviyala, a stronghold with twelve gates, they turned northward up the coast, captured Gomayagāma and Chaggāma (Sākāmam) and arrived at Balapāsāna (between Sākāmam and Malvattai). Here they built a formidable fortification and garrisoned it with a strong detachment under the command of the Lankapura Kitti. The main body now broke up into columns, all marching in a westerly direction (the reverse direction to that in which they had entered the Dīghavāpi district), and proceeded to subdue the Dīghavāpi district from end to end. The different columns fought a number of successful actions at various places, particularly Mālavatthuka (Malvattai), Vadhagāmakapāsāna (perhaps Vadināgala), Mulutta, Senaguttagāma (Sengamuva, between Lahugala and Pottuvil), Bolagama, Vanaragama

^{35.} Cul. 75. 5; 45. 60; Sig. Graff., I, App. C.

^{36.} E.Z., V, 124-141.

and Galambatthikagāma; having completed the subjugation of Dighavāpi district, all the columns from the different sectors continued their westerly advance and converged on Hintalavanagama (40 or 50 miles westward of Dīghavāpi). Hintālavanagāma was stormed, but the defenders, resorting to their usual tactics, created once again a diversion in the rear of Parakkamabāhu's forces by attempting to retake the Dighavāpi district: the garrison left behind at Balapāsāna, reinforced by a column from the main body which made a forced march to its aid, foiled this attempt to renew the conflict. No further fighting took place in Dighavāpi district, but resistance continued in lower Uva, Hambantota and Matara districts and ended only with the capture of Queen Sugala. The enforced peace was again disturbed five or six years later by another great uprising in Rohana of which the Chronicles give no details: this, too, was suppressed by military action and thereafter Rohana submitted to the rule of Parakkamabāhu I.37

(C). Central and North Batticaloa

Near Rūgam Tank are some ruins bearing an inscription of the year 307 in the reign of Sirimeghavaṇṇa which states that Piyakalutaṭa Vahira, the ancient name of the Vihāra on the site, was founded by Yaṭalaka Tisa Maharaja (Yaṭṭhālaya Tissa) who ruled over Rohaṇa about five centuries earlier. Other place-names occurring in the inscription are:—(i) Baḍalaka; (ii) Banaviṭiya and (iii) Culuna.³⁸

Kusalānakanda, 2 miles north of the 85th mile on the Badulla-Batticaloa road, is a large, rocky hill with several inscribed caves and other ancient remains. One pre-Christian inscription is by the prince Gamini Tiśa who was the son of Raja Abaya and the grandson of Uparaja Naga (Uparāja Mahānāga, brother of Devānampiya Tissa and first ruler of Rohana): if Raja Abaya is Gothābhaya of the Chronicles, as is probable, then Yatthālaya Tissa and Gothābhaya were brothers. The place Cahanilaya is mentioned in another cave inscription of the same period. Four miles to west is another group of inscribed caves at Kalūdupt tana-malai where one inscription is dated in the reign of an unnamed ruler who was the son of prince Abaya, probably identical with Raja Abaya of the Kusalānakanda inscription.³⁰

The artificial, drip-ledged cave at *Hennanēgala*, about 6 miles north-west of the 67th mile on the *Badulla-Batticaloa* road, is probably the largest cave in Ceylon. It bears a long inscription which contains the fish symbol of the *Kataragama* dynasty of early rulers who exercised authority over a part of Rohana in the 3rd and early 2nd

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centuries B.C. The following place-names occur in the inscription:—
(i) Kaśałanagara; (ii) Giritiśagama; (iii) Karajinitiśagama; (iv) Vilagama and (v) Malugama.

The immense rock, Nuvaragala, 6 miles south-east of the 67th mile on the Badulla-Batticaloa road, is mounted by an ancient, stone-paved roadway which climbs to the summit in an easy gradient, making the best use of the contours. On the summit was a cave monastery founded by king Saddhātissa whose inscription is on the main cave.⁴⁰

At Kokavāta in Kokavāta-janapada or Kokkādanavva. Mahāsena (275-301) founded a great vihāra and built a tank. *Kokkāgala* is a very conspicuous and lofty hill about 2 miles west of the 56th mile on the *Badulla-Batticalva* road, but no remains of a large monastery are known in this locality.⁴¹

Bintänna Pattu and that part of Ērāvūr Pattu immediately to northward of Rūgam-kulam are hilly regions with no great stretches of flat land suitable for paddy cultivation, and these areas must always have been for the greater part under forest and sparsely inhabited. They have not yet been fully explored for ancient ruins.

Pre-Christian ruins exist at:—(i) Veheragala, 2½ miles north of the 67th mile on the Badulla-Batticaloa road; (ii) Omunagala, 7 miles north of the last-named and (iii) Niyandavarāgala, 4 miles north-west of the 77th mile on the Badulla-Batticaloa road.

Erāhuļu-disābhāga of the 12th century corresponded roughly to modern $\bar{E}r\bar{a}v\bar{u}r$ $Pattu.^{42}$

Mahāsena (275-301) destroyed the Brahmanical temples at Gokaṇṇa (*Trincomalee*), Kalanda (see under Chapter II (A)), and Erakāvilla, all on the eastern coast of Rohaṇa, and founded vihāras on their sites. The name Erakāvilla may be retained in modern *Eruvil*, 12 miles south of *Batticaloa*.⁴³

An inscription of Vasabha (67-III) at Kūmacōlai, I mile southwest of the 92nd mile on the Badulla Batticaloa road, mentions the Minister who governed the eastern coast (pajinakara) and the names of the fields donated to the vihāra at the site.

The ruins at *Veherauḍamalai*, about 3 miles north-west of the 89th mile on the *Badulla Batticaloa* road, are named Dakapahaṇaka Vihara in an isncription of Mahādāṭhika-mahānāga *in situ*: an irrigation canal was granted to the vihāra.⁴⁴

- 40. Parker 445, 446.
- 41. M. 37. 42, 47; M.T. 685; Puj. 24.
- 42. M. 74. 91.
- 11 43. M. 37. 40, 41; M.T. 685, 32.
 - 44. A.S.C.A.R., 1935, 10.

^{37.} Cul. 74. 89-111, 169-180: 75. 1-13: 76. 1-6.

^{38.} A.I.C. 24; U.C.R. VII, No. 4, 238.

^{39.} U.C.R. VII, No. 4, 240.

Pre-Christian ruins exist at:—(i) Kalveṭṭētavana-kalūḍu, about 5 miles west-south-west of Vākanēri; (ii) Kavuḍāgala or Small Quoin, about 10 miles north-west of Punānai and (iii) Katiraveli, at the 44th mile on the Batticaloa-Trincomalee road.

(D). The Ancient Districts of Kotthivala and Kotthasara45

Koṭṭhivāla district is also called Koṭṭivāta, Kontivāta, and Koṭagāma in Rohaṇa. Its area appears to have corresponded to the north-west projection of *Bintāma Division* in *Batticaloa district* and the adjacent region to north-east on both sides of the *Māduru Oya*. In it were:—

- (i) Khandakavitthika, also called Mandalacittaka, Kadaviti and Godigamuva, 3 yojanas or 12 gav (20 to 30 miles) from Kacchakatittha (Mahagantota): this was the birthplace of the warrior Sūranimila⁴⁶;
- (ii) Piyangalla or Piyangalu Vihāra. In an inscription of the reign of Kanittha Tissa (167-186) at Nelugala, about 8 miles south of Punānai, the site is named Piyagalaka Ahalipavata Vihera and is probably identical with Piyangalla of the Chronicle. The inscription gives the following other place-names:—(a) Ahalaviya, in Vadamanaka; (b) Aganaka tank; (c) Totagamaka tank and canal and (d) Upalavila⁴⁷;
- (iii) Kotthagāma or Kotanagara. An inscription of the 10th century 48 found at Polonnaruva mentions certain places in the province of Girivadunnā-danaviya which was a considerable area extending to east and west of the Mahavāli Ganga. There were two districts within this province, that to west of the river being Maharat while the district to east of the river is not named. Maharat is identical with Mahārattha of the Chronicles and it extended westward from the river to the border of Kālavāpi (Kalāvāva), so that its area included parts of present Hurulu Palāta, Tamankaduva and Mātalē North. 49 In Maharat and the district adjoining it on the east, were the two villages Maharakāya

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and Kotgam, both adjacent, the former in Maharat and the latter in the adjoining district. Maharakāya is undoubtedly Mahārukkha of the Chronicle, correctly identified by Codrington with modern Mārakē on the west bank of the river. Kotgam is identical with Kotthagāma, described as a rich village dedicated to the Bodhi Tree at Anurādhapura: Koṭanagara, one of the forts on the river reduced by Duṭthagāmaṇi Abhaya, is another name for it. Since Maharakāya and Koṭgam were adjacent villages but in different territorial districts, it is evident that some natural barrier separated them: this barrier was the Mahavāli Ganga, Maharakāya (modern Mārakē) being on the west or left bank, and Koṭgam (modern Koṭaganvela) on the opposite east or right bank⁵⁰;

(iv) Devatissagāma, granted by Mānavamma (684-718) to the Mahānettapādika dwelling built by him for the Dhammaruci sect. (A vihāra named Mahānettapādika in Pulatthinagara (Polonnaruva) is mentioned in the reign of Sena I: in the inscription of Kassapa V at Abhayagiri, the āvāsa named Mahanet-pā is referred to: and Mahānettapāsāda is mentioned in the reign of Vijayabāhu IV. Mahānettapādika, Mahanet-pā, Mahānettapābata and Mahānettapāsāda all refer to one and the same religious establishment at Polonnaruva). 51

About 1113, Vikkamabāhu, ruler of Rājarattha, defeated by the invader Viradeva near Mannār, reached Polonnaruva in flight, collected his valuables, and 'betook himself in haste to Kotthasara', obviously with the intention of leaving the Island if he was forced to do so: but he succeeded in inveigling the invading troops into a great, swampy wilderness and there completely routed them. During the hostilities between Parakkamabāhu I and Gajabāhu II, Kotthasāra district figured prominently. When Polonnaruva fell to Parakkamabāhu's troops, Gajabāhu 'fled at once and betook himself in haste to Kotthasara', again, obviously, to escape by ship if he was further pursued. When Gajabāhu died at Kantalāy his body was removed by his Ministers to Kotthasāra and Mānābharana of Rohana was invited to come there with his army and take possession of Rajarattha. In the reign of Parakkamabahu I (1153-1186) foreign, mercenary troops stationed in Kotthasara district staged an unsuccessful insurrection. Tamil invaders were in occupation of Kotthasara and several other districts around the ports in the reign of Parakkamabāhu II (1236-1271).52 Kotthasāra is called Kotasara or Kotusara in the

^{45.} This section was originally headed 'The ancient Kotthasāra district' and in the text Kotthivāla, Kottavāta, Kontivāta, Kotagāma and Kotthasāra were equated as variant names for one and the same district. Professor Paranavitana, who read the typescript, was kind enough to suggest to me cogent reasons for identifying Kotthasāra with modern Kōttiyār, and I had no hesitation in altering my views accordingly. The section has been re-written on the basis of Professor Paranavitana's identification of Kotthasāra.

^{46.} M. 23. 19-22.; M.T. 448, 23; E.M. 23, 27; Thv. 130; Raj. 31.

^{47.} M. 30. 29; M.T. 537, 23; E.M. 30, 65; Thv. 176.

^{48.} E.Z. IV, 38, 44, 53.

^{49.} M. 72. 163, 199.

^{50.} M. 72. 11: 49. 16: 25. 13; E.M. 23. 27.

^{51.} M. 48. 2: 50. 74: 88. 47; E.Z. 1. 56.

^{52.} M. 61. 42: 70. 305: 71. 6: 74. 44: 83. 15

Sinhalese Chronicles.⁵³ On historical and other grounds, Dr. Paranavitana identifies the place Kotthasāra with modern Kottivār and Kotthasāra district with, approximately, modern Kottivār Pattu. In Kotthasāra district were:—

- (i) Antaravitthika, a village granted to ascetic monks: near it was a great, swampy wilderness where the invader, Viradeva, was trapped and slain: there are several large swamps in the angle between the Mahaväli Ganga and the Virugal Āru³⁴;
- (ii) Tannaru, probably close to the river: in it was a monastery⁵⁵;
- (iii) Uddhavāpi, northward of Tannaru⁵⁶;
- (iv) Vālukapatta, to west of Tannaru and possibly outside Koṭṭhasāra district 57 ;
- (v) Kohombagāma, a fortified place⁵⁸;
- (vi) Ambagāma⁵⁹;
- (vii) Tannitittha, a ford.60

CHAPTER III

THE MAHAVÄLI GANGA BETWEEN MAHIYANGANA AND THE SEA

The Mahaväli Ganga emerges from the hills into the lowlands, turns north about 7 miles above Mahiyangana and flows north-northeast to the sea at Trincomalee. This lower course is the river's floodplain: it overflows its banks at least once a year and deposits a layer of silt on which today tobacco is cultivated. The Vilas or natural lakes, of which there are several from Yakkurē onwards, are depressions in the flood-plain which are re-filled with each overflow.

The fords and forts along this lower course of the Gangā or Mahā Gangā or Mahāvāluka Gangā (Mahavāli Ganga), which was the boundary between Rājaraṭṭha and Rohaṇa, receive detailed mention in connection with Duṭṭhagāmaṇi's war with Elāra in the 2nd century B.C. and again during the civil war in the 12th century which preceded the accession of Parakkamabāhu I.¹ These fords and forts and the places associated with them are not described in the Chronicles in any geographical order and it is not possible, therefore, to localise several of them even approximately. They are:—

- (i) Ambatitthaka, also called Ambatota and Ambatuva, the next fortress down the river from Mahiyangana: it was protected by a moat leading from the river and must have been situated a few miles downstream from Mahiyangana²;
- (ii) Khemārāma, also known as Khemavāpi, Satbēkoṭṭa and Satbākoṭṭa³;
- (iii) Talanīgāma, present *Talangamuva*, about 5 miles north of Mahiyangaṇa⁴;
- (iv) Doņa or Denagama⁵;
- (v) Sarogāmatittha, identified by Codrington as Vilgamuva, about 15 miles north of Mahiyangana; close by was the village Vātīyamandapa⁶;
- 1. M. 25. 7-20: 72. 1-100.
- 2. M. 25. 7, 8; N.S. 26; Raj. 37; Thv. 146.
- 3. D. 20. 25; M. 25. 10; N.S. 26; Raj. 37; Thv. 146.
- 4. M. 72. 4.
- 5. · M. 25. 11; N.S. 26; Raj. 37; Thv. 146.
- 6. M. 72. 2, 32.

^{53.} N.S. 23; Thv. 176; Puj. 42.

^{54.} M. 60. 68: 61. 46: 70. 322.

^{55.} M. 70. 313-319: 72. 175.

^{56.} M. 72. 174.

^{57.} M. 70. 318.

^{58.} M. 70. 320.

^{59.} M. 70. 321.

^{60.} M. 70. 322.

- (vi) Antarāsobbha, also called Aturaba and Äturoba: there was a vihāra called Antarasobbha, and later Aggabodhi V (718-724) built the Deva Vihāra in Antarasobbha⁷;
- (vii) Pūnagāma8;
- (viii) Hālakola, also called Mahākōla9;
- (ix) Samīrukkha, present Hämbarava¹⁰;
- (x) Mahārukkha, identified by Codrington as present *Mārakē* (see under Chapter II (D))¹¹;
- (xi) Nīlagāma. Mahārukkha (above) was close outside Nīlagiri of Nīlagallaka-raṭṭha which was on the west (left) bank of the river. Udaya I (797-801) built Nīlagalla Vihāra and constructed a canal which he granted to the Vihāra. Nīlagiri or Nīlagalla district was the place of assembly for attacks on districts to the south of it, and it extended over the hilly portion of Laggala Pallēsiya Pattu. Codrington's opinion is that Nīlagallaka district corresponded to present Udispattu in Pāta Dumbara. In Nīlagiri or Nīlagallaka district were the villages Sayakhettaka and Rattabeduma¹²;
- (xii) Nālisobbha, also called Nālikeravatthu, Nālikanagara and Polvatta, and identified by Codrington as modern Polvatta, about 25 miles north of Mahiyangana. Aggabodhi II (604-614) built Neraļu tank and Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) restored Nālikeramahāthamba tank, both identical with Polvatta¹³;
- (xiii) Anantarabhandaka¹⁴;
- (xiv) Kāņatālavana¹⁵;
- (xv) Dīghābhayagallaka : Mahācūļī Mahātissa (B.C. 77-63) built the Viharās Dīghabāhugallaka and Abhayagallaka¹⁶;
- (xvi) Yakkhasūkara, identified by Codrington as Yakkurē, about 9 miles south of Mahagantota¹⁷;
- 7. M. 25. 11: 48. 4; N.S. 26; Raj. 37; Thv. 44; E.H.B. 66.
- 8. M. 72. 8.
- 9. M. 25. 11; N.S. 26; Raj. 37; Thv. 146.
- 10. M. 72. 9.
- 11. M. 72. 11.
- 12. M. 49. 31: 70. 10, 11, 14, 16, 20, 83; N.S. 26; Raj. 37.
- 13. M. 25. 11: 72. 14: 79. 33; E.M. 25. 26; N.S. 26; Puj. 28; Raj. 37; Thv. 146.
 - 14. M. 72. 16.
 - 15. M. 72. 19.
 - 16. M. 25. 12: 34. 8, 9; N.S. 26; Raj. 37; Thv. 146.
 - 17. M. 72. 21.

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 - (xvii) Vihāravejjasāla: the name suggests a monastic hospital¹⁸;
 - (xviii) Kacchatittha or Kacchakatittha or Kasatoţa, identified by Geiger with present Mahagantoţa. Kacchatittha is first mentioned in Paṇḍukābhaya's reign in the 5th century B.C.: it was 9 yojanas (70 to 85 miles) from Mihintalē. In a 1st century inscription at Mīnvila, it is called Kahagamakatoṭa (see under Antaragaṅgāya below): Dappula II (815-831) built Kacchavāla Vihāra for the Paṃsukūlins. Tungam-Kaṭupiṭiya was on the Anurādhapura side of Kasātoṭa¹⁹;
 - (xix) Assamandala. Asmandalapitiya is given as one of the old boundaries of Sēruvāvila Vihāra and if it is the same as Assamandala the ford was in the lower reaches of the river. The legends connected with Sēruvila Vihāra, whose ancient name was Vilgam Vihāra, are contained in the Dhātuvamsa²⁰;
 - (xx) Sakkharālaya Gangā, a major tributary or one of the delta branches of the river: it was bridged and on its east bank was the Sākkunda grove²¹;
 - (xxi) Koṭanagara, identical with Koṭṭliagāma and Koṭgam, modern Koṭaganvela: (see under Chapter II (D)²²;
 - (xxii) Vahiṭṭha, also called Vasiṭṭhagama, Mahāveṭṭa, Veṭhanuvara and Veṭhaka²³;
 - (xxiii) Cullanāga²⁴;
 - (xxiv) Burudatthalī²⁵;
 - (xxv) Niguṇḍivālukā: this is identical with Nikavili and Nikuvilika mentioned in 1st century inscriptions at Molāhitiyēvelēgāla and Dūvegala respectively. Nikaväli occurs also in a 10th century inscription. The situation of the place should be east of the river and south of Dimbulāgala, but there is a modern Nikagollāva 3 miles north of Mārakē²⁶;
 - (xxvi) Hālavahānaka, also called Bhettāgama²⁷;

^{18.} M. 72. 25.

^{19.} M. 10. 58: 23. 6: 25. 12: 49. 80: 72. 25; N.S. 26; Raj. 36, 37; Thv. 107.

^{20.} M. 72. 27; Dhv. 27, 48.

^{21.} M. 72. 29, 30.

^{22.} See Chapter II (D).

^{23.} M. 25. 13; N.S. 26; Raj. 37; Thv. 146.

^{24.} M. 72. 34.

^{25.} M. 72. 36.

^{26.} M. 72. 37; C.A. III. 77, 205; E.Z. II. 25.

^{27.} M. 25. 13; E.M. 25. 28.

- (xxvii) Bānāgāma, also called Bhāṇakagama and Bāranakha²⁸;
- (xxviii) Yācitagāma²⁹;
- (xxix) Hillapattakakhaṇḍa: Parakkamabāhu I restored the tank of this name³⁰;
- (xxx) Gāmaṇi, also called Gāmaṇigāma and Gämiṇigam: Elara's fortress commander here was named Gāmaṇi, the inference being that a Sinhalese prince in this instance was on the side of Elara³¹;
- (xxxi) Titthagāma³²;
- (xxxii) Kumbagāma, also called Kumbhabāṇa and Kappakanagara³³;
- (xxxiii) Mālāgāma, identified by Codrington as $M\bar{a}lagamuva-v\ddot{a}va$ in the $V\bar{a}sgamuva$ area: Saddhātissa built Māladeņiya tank³4;
- (xxxiv) Golabāha: Golabāgamu and Golobāgama occur in medieval inscriptions³⁵;
- (xxxv) Nandigāma, also called Chindagāma: the Mahāvamsa says that Subha (60-67) built Nandigāmaka Vihāra at the mouth of the river, but the Ṭīkā locates it near Kaccakatittha (Mahagantoṭa)³⁶;
- (xxxvi) Hedillakhandagāma was west of the river and opposite it was the ford named Billagāma: there is a *Beligam Oya* just south of *Hämbarava*³⁷;
- (xxxvii) Khānugāma or Khānuka38;
- (xxxviii) Dīpāla³⁹;
- (xxxix) Mayūrapāsāṇa, a stronghold near one of the lesser known fords⁴⁰;
 - (xl)/ Vallitittha, close to Mayūrapāsāņa above41;
- 28. Raj. 37; Thv. 146.
- 29. M. 72. 40.
- 30. M. 72. 41: 79. 37.
- 31. M. 25. 13; N.S. 26; Raj. 37; Thv. 146; Sig. Graff., I, App. C.
- 32. M. 72. 42.
- 33. M. 25. 14; E.M. 25. 29; N.S. 26; Raj. 37; Thv. 146.
- 34. M. 72. 50; Puj. 18.
- 35. M. 72. 52; E.Z., I. 200: III. 81.
- 36. M. 25. 7-20: 35. 58: 72. 44; E.M. 25. 30; M.T. 648, 5; N.S. 26; Thv. 146.
- 37. M. 72. 45-49.
- 38. M. 23. 14; N.S. 26; Thv. 146.
- 39. M. 72. 54.
- 40. M. 72. 74.
- 41. M. 72. 82.

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 - (xli) Tamba, also called Tambunna⁴²;
 - (xlii) Jambu or Dambunnaru⁴³;
 - (xliii) Māgalla, mentioned in only one Sinhalese Chronicle⁴⁴;
 - (xliv) Unnama⁴⁵;
 - (xlv) Sahassatittha, identified by Geiger as present $D\bar{a}stota$, south of Polonnaruva: in medieval times the ceremony of ordination of monks was held on an island, now called $K\bar{a}linga-nuvara$, near $D\bar{a}sto'a^{46}$;
 - (xlvi) Rihaltoţa⁴⁷;
 - (xlvii) Mundavāka.48

Dolapabbata, also called Dolangapabbata, is mentioned in the 5th century B.C. as one of the fortresses occupied by Paṇḍukābhaya, and has been identified as *Dolagala*, a large hill about 10 miles eastward of *Hämbarava* on the river. 49

Dhūmarakkhapabbata or Udumbarapabbata or Udumbarasālapabbata is modern Dimbulāgala or Gunner's Quoin, the most prominent hill in Tamankaduva. Pandukābhaya is said to have lived there for 4 years in the 5th century B.C., and a pond near its foot, doubtless one of the vilas which lie between it and the river, was called Tumbariyangana. Although the foundation of the Vihāra is not recorded, the numerous inscriptions on the many caves on its slopes establish its origin late in the 3rd or early in the 2nd century B.C. The Tika says that the Vihāra was o yojanas (70 to 85 miles) from Anurādhapura and one vojana (7 to 9 miles) from the sea, and that the Lohapāsāda at Anuradhapura was visible from it: the actual distance from the sea in a direct line is about 28 miles, while the distance from Anuradhapura by road could not have been less than 80 miles. Mahānāma (406-428) added to the buildings at the Vihāra and presented them to the Theravāda school. An inscription of Sundaramahādevī, Queen of Vikkamabāhu (1111-1132), incised on a cave near the summit, names the monastery Dumbulagala and says that 500 monks were in residence there: the Queen repaired the dangerous pathway joining the two summit caves, Hiru-maha-lena and Sanda-maha-lena, and re-named the former Kālinga-lena. Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) carried out a purge of the religious order with the help of the Mahathera Kassapa of Audumbaragiri or Udumbaragiri or Odumbara Vihāra (Dimbulāgala).

- 43. M. 25. 15; Thv. 146.
- 44. N.S. 26.
- 45. M. 25. 14.
- 46. M. 87. 71: 89. 47-64.
- 47. Sdhlk. 537.
- 48. Ibid., 600.
- 49. M. 10. 44; M.T. 287, 28.

^{42.} M. 25. 14, 15; M.T. 474, 509; N.S. 26; Raj. 37; Thv. 146. Tambunna combines the two place-names, Tamba and Unnama.

Again, in the reign of Parakkamabāhu II (1236-1271) it was a Mahāthera of this Vihāra who assisted the king to restore order in the Saṅgha.⁵⁰

At Mutugala, close to the right bank of the river and about 6 miles north-east of Mahagantota, there are the ruins of an ancient cave monastery and inscriptions dating from 2nd B.C. to 7th A.C. The inscriptions name the following places:—(i) Todikaṭana; (ii) (Pa)nagamaka tank; (iii) Valagarina and (iv) Vijiribupa(va)tagala Vehera. In the river, close to Mutugala, is the Anaikallu or Galaliyā, a stone, life-size sculpture in the full round of an elephant: this sculpture once stood in a monastery through which the river, by a change of course, has cut its way, submerging some of the structures.

At $Kurun\bar{a}kallu$, about 3 miles north-east of Mutugala, an inscription of 2nd B.C. records the grant of a cave by the village corporation of Dipikulika.⁵¹

A pre-Christian inscription at Lunuvaraniyagala, 2 miles south of the 41st mile on the $V\bar{a}laic\bar{e}na$ -Manampitiya road, testifies to the existence of an ancient monastery at the site.

The region named Antaragangāya, called Ataragaga in an early inscription, has been identified by Paranavitana as the area between the $Mahav\"{a}li~Ganga$ and the $M\=aduru~Oya.^{52}$ In this district were:—

- (1) Pelagāma Vihāra, built by Kuṭakaṇṇa Tissa (B.C. 44-22) and identified by Paranavitana from a 1st century inscription in situ, in which it is called Pilipavata Vihara, with the present ruins at Mōlāhiṭivēvelēgala, south of Dimbulāgala. There are four inscriptions at this site dating from 1st B.C. to 2nd A.C. and the place-names mentioned therein are:—(i) Dapalaga(maka) tank; (ii) Gaṇa(ma)ṭaka canal; (iii) Katelavasaka tank; (iv) Ahuravika; (v) Piḍavika tank and (vi) Nikavili, for which see above⁵³;
- (2) Vannaka canal, constructed by Kuṭakanna Tissa (B.C. 44-22). At Koṭaveheragala, near Horivila, an inscription of king Mahādāṭhikamahānāga (7-19) names the site Tisa Vihara and grants to it the Va(na)ka canal and the village Aligamaka.⁵⁴
- (3) Ambadugga or Dugga tank built by Kuṭakaṇṇa Tissa.⁵⁵

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 - (4) Bhayoluppala tank, also called Setuppala and Bahuppala, built by the same king.⁵⁶
 - (5) Kahagamakatoṭa (synonymous with Kacchakatittha above) and Humana-atagamakatoṭa, two fords situated in Ataragaga (Antaragaṅgāya), as stated in an inscription of Bhātikatissa (143-167) at Mīnvila.
 - (6) Antarāganga Vihāra to which Jeṭṭhatissa III (628) donated the village of Cullamātika.⁵⁷

At Mīnvila, a swamp on the west bank of the Mahaväli Ganga, almost opposite Kandakādu, are six inscriptions dating from the 1st century B.C. to the 2nd century A.C.: close by are the ruins now known as Somāvatī Cetiya. These inscriptions name, in addition to Kahagamakatota and Humana-atagamakatota already mentioned above, the following :- (i) (Pu)daji-niyagama canal; (ii) Rajali canal; (iii) Raja-alipitiya or Raja-alavitiva, the field irrigated by the canal, the present Minvila swamp and (iv) Havitaka field. The river, which is very broad in this locality, was apparently dammed at this early period by a temporary timber dam, renewed after every flood: even in later times no attempt was made to construct a stone or earth dam in this broad stretch of the river. At the neighbouring Somāvatī Cetiya there is an inscription recording the foundation of the Vihāra, which is named Pajini-Nakala-araba-vihara, by the prince Nakala, son of king Mahāllaka Nāga (136-143): another, later inscription of Kanittlia Tissa at the site names the Cetiya, Mani-agaya-cetiva. The present name and so-called traditions about this site are therefore spurious.58

Cittapabbata or Sitpavparvata was in or near the eastern district of Elāra's kingdom which was bounded by the Mahaväli Ganga. An inscription of the 2nd century at Tōnikallu or Tōnigala, near Kandakāḍu, about 3 miles east of the river, names the site Citanakaraka Vihara and records the grant to it of the tank named (Sa)marapatiya. In a later 6th century inscription the monastery is named Maha-Cittanakara. Cittanakara was presumably close to Cittapabbata, modern Tōnikallu.⁵⁹

Pācīnakhaṇḍarāji, also called Kaḍaroda (but erroneously located to south of Anurādhapura in the Rājāvaliya), was near Cittapabbata. Pācīnakhaṇḍarāji or Khaṇḍarāja Vihāra was a woodland solitude which existed in early times. Upatissa (365-406) restored the Vihāra. Pācīnakhaṇḍarāji was a sub-district to north-east of Polonnaruva on the west bank of the river. 60

^{50.} M. 10. 53, 62: 37. 213; M.T. 287, 32: 505. 14; N.S. 22; E.Z. I. 136: II. 196, 274.

^{51.} A.S.C.A.R., 1897, 11; C.A. III, 211; J.R.A.S. (C.B.), New Series, V, 71, note 18.

^{52.} E.Z. III, 154.

^{53.} M. 34. 32; E.Z. III. 154; C.A. III. 77.

^{54.} M. 34. 32; C.A., III. 205, 206; E.Z., III. 157, note 4.

^{55.} M. 34. 33.

^{56.} D. 20. 35; M. 34. 33; M.T. 628, 14.

^{57.} M. 44. 100.

^{58.} A.S.C.A.R., 1954, 29.

^{59.} M. 23. 4: C.A. III, 214; E.Z., V. 80; Thv. 15.

^{60.} M. 23. 4; 37. 186; Thv. 129; Raj. 30; E.H.B. 105, 111.

Vasabha (67-III) built Cāthamangaṇatank, also called Manguṇuäla. An inscription of Udaya II (887-898) at Noccipotāna, near Manampiṭiya, mentions the village Munguṇueluvagama, irrigated by the waters of Valaraka Gelgama. Cāthamangaṇa, Manguṇuäla and Munguṇueluvagama all stand for the present tank near Noccipotāna. Gelgama is modern Galēgama, about 2 miles away (Bell).61

At the picturesque ruins at Kumbukkandana, on the west bank of the river a few miles north of $M\bar{a}rak\bar{e}$, there are several inscriptions of the 4th to 7th centuries. The place Tabaraya, the residence of the district chieftain (ratiya), is mentioned.

Aggabodhi I (571-604) was the original builder of the Manimekhala dam, now called *Minipe*, on the *Mahaväli Ganga*. Sena II (853-887) is also credited with its construction: probably he restored it. The district was called Manimekhala after the dam. In a 13th century inscription at *Minipe* the dam is called Minibē: the inscription says that its original builder was the Minister, Mēkit-Nā, that it was breached in the 20th year (1173) of Parakkamabāhu I, and that it was restored by the General Bhāma in 1208. In the reign of the invader Māgha (1214-1235) a Sinhalese chieftain built a fortress in the Maṇimekhala district on the Gaṇgādoṇi hill, present *Gamdeṇiya* about 15 miles south of *Minipe*, and kept the invaders at bay. 62

Mahāsena (275-301) built the great canal named Pabbatanta on the river. ⁶³ For an account of the irrigation system on the lower course of the river, reference should be made to the paper entitled, 'The Irrigation Works of Parakkamabāhu I', in the Ceylon Historical Journal, 'The Polonnaruva Period', Volume IV, 59 to 65.

CHAPTER IV

THE TRINCOMALEE DISTRICT

Trincomalee itself contains one of the largest and safest natural harbours in the world, but it did not achieve importance as one of the great trading ports of Ceylon. The landing place of Panduvāsudeva in the 5th century B.C. is given as Gokannatittha at the mouth of the Mahākandara river: therefore, Mahākandara is another name for Gangā or Mahāgangā or Mahāvāluka Gangā, the Mahaväli Ganga. Panduvāsudeva's queen is said to have landed at Gonagāmaka: this is a synonym or slip for Gokannagāma, modern Trincomalee. On the coast of the eastern sea, on the site of a Brahmanical temple which he destroyed, Mahāsena (275-301) built the Gokanna Vihāra. A place by the Gokanna sea is mentioned as the scene of a manifestation of the Nāga king: again, a manifestation of the god Skanda riding a peacock is said to have appeared to Manavamma who was 'seated on the bank of the river in the neighbourhood of Gokannaka'. Aggabodhi V (718-724) erected a Practising House in Gokannaka Vihāra. Parakkamabāhu, in the 12th century, for the defence of the line of the Mahaväli Ganga, disposed his forces 'from Sarogāma (Vilgamuva) to Gokanna (Trincomalee)'. A Sanskrit inscription, dated on Friday, the 14th of April, 1223, records the landing of Codagamga-deva at Gokarnna. 'The etymological equivalent in Sinhalese of Gokanna is Gona, and the seaport or district of Gona figures in the wars which Parakkamabāhu II waged to wrest Rajarattha from Magha. Gona is the main element in the Tamil Tirukkonamalai, which has been anglicised as Trincomalee. Tiru means "sacred" and malai "hill", the name thus meaning "the sacred hill of Kona", which last results from the transliteration into Tamil characters of the Sinhalese Gona '.1

Copper is said to have been discovered in the reign of Duṭṭhagāmaṇi Abhaya (B.C. 161-137) at Tambapiṭṭha or Tambaviṭi, 7 yojanas or 28 gav (50 to 65 miles) east of Anurādhapura on the further (east) bank of the Mahavähi Gaṅga. Tambala is probably the same place, but not Tambaviṭṭhi where the Cōḷa general was captured after his defeat at Palaṭupāṇa. Tambapiṭṭha and Tambala are represented in modern Tambalagam. Close to and east of Tambala was Tīsucullasagāma.²

The village Abagamiya is mentioned in a pre-Christian cave inscription at *Nācceri-malai*, near *Kuccavēli*. In a second inscription

^{61.} M. 35. 95; Puj. 21; Raj. 47; E.Z., II. 8; C.A., IV. 1, 2.

^{62.} M. 42. 34; 51. 72: 81. 7-9; A.S.C.A.R., 1940-45, 40; E.Z., V. 159.

^{63.} M. 37. 50.

^{1.} M.8.12, 24:37.41:41.79:48.5:57.5:71.18; M.T. 269, 23:658, 32; A.S.C.A.R., 1946, 17; E.Z., V. 170-173.

^{2.} M. 28. 16: 45. 78: 58: 21; Thv. 162.

of the same period here, the donor was the grandson of a king and the son of a prince named Daraka.³

Pre-Christian inscriptions exist also near Gōmarankaḍavala and Kannitavimalai, near Pulmōdḍai, as well as at Iccilampattai, near the 50th mile on the Batticaloa-Trincomalee road.⁴

Inscriptions of the 1st century at Nīlapānikkankulam-malai, about 5 miles north-west of Kuccavēli, name the site Kakelakuvahanaka Vihera and grant to it the Hayigaraya tank. Kākālaya district, also called Kauḍāpulu and Kavuḍāvulu, an area approximating to present Kaḍḍukulam Pattu, was under occupation by Tamil invaders in the 13th century. Mahāsena (275-301) built Kavuḍumāgalu tank.⁵

The ruins at Nātanār Kōvil, near Periyakulam, were an ancient Buddhist monastery known as Velagama or Velagāmi or Velgam Vihāra. In an inscription of Bhātikatissa (143-167) on the adjoining hill, the site is called Abagara Vihara at Velagama. During the Cōla conquest from 993 to 1070, the Hindu invaders extended their patronage and protection to this Buddhist Vihāra, made donations to the shrine of the Buddha, renovated the buildings, and re-named the temple, after their king, Rājarājaperumpaļli. When Cōla occupation ended, the Sinhalese Buddhists resumed possession of the temple. The present ruins exhibit a Hindu architecture and are the only example of a Tamil Vihāra or Buddhist Palli in Ceylon. Nissanka Malla visited the Vihāra.⁶

The ruined site at Kalkulam, about 5 miles south-west of Kiliveddi, is called Garimahalaka Mahavahara in a 4th century inscription in situ. The foundation of the Vihāra is ascribed by the inscription to Duṭaka Gamiṇi Aba Raja (Duṭṭhagāmaṇi Abhaya, B.C. 161-137), and the following place names are mentioned:—(i) Garimahalaka fields, and (ii) Dahadiya. In a 9th century inscription at the same site, the construction of Udgala dāgāba is recorded.

Girihandu Vihāra is mentioned as the place where the two merchants who secured the Hair Relics after the Buddha's cremation enshrined them in a Cetiya. This legend is narrated in a 7th century Sanskrit inscription at Nītupatpāṇa, near Tiriyāy, about 30 miles north of Trincomalee, where the ruins include caves with pre-Christian inscriptions and a beautiful Vaṭa-dā-gē. The Sanskrit inscription names the site Girikaṇḍika Cetiya. Near Girikaṇḍa Vihāra was the village Vattakālaka. Vasabha (67-111) is said to have constructed Nītupatpāṇa tank, which is the name now borne by a large, breached tank in the neighbourhood, but the modern name is

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probably of recent origin. Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110) repaired Girikandaka Vihāra.⁸

Sangilla was a village not far from the mouth of the Mahaväli Ganga.

Gangātaṭa, also called Gangatalā (present Kantalāy) tank was built by Aggabodhi II (604-614). Brahmins were established at Kantalay in the 11th and 12th centuries. It probably became a centre of Hindu influence during the Cola occupation (993-1070) but that influence did not cease when the foreign occupation ended, because ' the Sinhalese kings who succeeded the Colas maintained the Brahmins and patronised their shrines. The Saiva shrine at Kantalav, since it was called Vijayarāja Iśvaram, must have been founded by Vijayabāhu I, or, at least, under his patronage'. In an inscription of the reign of Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110) recording a gift by a Brahmin, the place is named Kantaļāv alias Vijayarāja-caturvedi-mangalam. An inscription of Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) gives the length of the bund of Gangatalā tank as 4,300 riyan. Nissanka Malla built the Pārvatī Alms Hall at Gangatala, also called Caturveda-Brahmapura, and he declared the tank a sanctuary for animals. In the 13th century Tamil invaders were in occupation of Gantala district.10

The port from which Parakkamabahu's expeditionary force set sail for Burma in 1164/65 was Pallavavanka, identified by Codrington as modern *Palvakki*, 4 miles north of *Kuccavēli*. 11

Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) founded the village Pāṇḍuvijayagāma in honour of his successful invasion of the Pāṇḍyan kingdom. (After great initial success his army was defeated by the Cōlas and his generals captured and decapitated, but this stage of the campaign is not recorded in the Cūlavamsa but in the Cōla inscriptions). An inscription of Nissanka Malla (1187-1196) at Galmäṭiyāna tank, near Tampalakāmam, records that he had the tank Pāṇḍuvijayakulam constructed in one day: this refers to Galmäṭiyāna tank and cannot mean original construction but some major repair, because Parakkamabāhu's new village must have included a tank. 12

For Köttivär Pattu, see Chapter II (D), Kotthasära district.

^{3.} A.S.C.A.R., 1933, 18.

^{4.} C.J.S. (G) II. 117, 118; A.S C.A.R., 1954, 36, Nos. 5-9.

^{5.} M. 83, 15; Puj. 24, 42; N.S. 23.

^{6.} M. 60. 62; E.Z. II. 177; C.J.S. (G) II, 199; A.S.C.A.R., 1934, 8: 1953, 9: 1954, 14.

^{7.} A.S.C.A.R., 1933, 14, 19; U.C.R. VII, No. 4, 247.

^{8.} M. 60. 60; C.J.S. (G) II, 117; Puj. 21, 184; Raj. 46; E.Z., IV. 151, 160; 314: E.H.B. 122.

o M 41, 60-76

^{10.} M. 42. 67; Puj. 28, 42; N.S. 23; A.S.C.A.R., 1927 10 22., II. 142, 290; IV. 195.

^{11.} M. 76. 46.

^{12.} M. 77. 105; C.J.S. (G) II. 199.

CHAPTER V

THE BADULLA DISTRICT

(A) Upper Ūva

The western portion of the Badulla district is a mountainous region with its highest peaks rising to over 7,000 feet, but, climatically, it is different from the rest of the montane zone in that it receives a mild rainfall during the south-west monsoon (May to September). Extensive stretches of the mountain slopes are patana or savannah lands whose only cover is coarse grass: but the valleys exhibit a luxuriant vegetation and are often forested. The quartz artefacts of pre-historic man are found on these patanas which are not of recent origin. There is no evidence that the upper montane zone above about 3,500 feet was populated prior to the 10th century. There were, doubtless, routes over the mountains: one such, referred to in an inscription of the year 1093/94 but in existence much earlier, was the pilgrim route from Hūva (Ūva) to Sunianakūta (Adam's Peak).

Epigraphical evidence of the occupation of the lower montane zone of the Badulla district in pre-Christian times is available in the inscribed caves, the dwellings of early Buddhist monks, at (i) Bōgoḍa, about 7 miles north-west of Badulla, (ii) Mätigahatänna, about 20 miles by road north of Passara, and (iii) Kandē Vihāra, high above Vällavāya. The movement into the hills around Bōgoḍa and Mäṭigahatänna was from the Mahiyaṅgaṇa area up the valleys of the Uma Oya and the Loggal Oya: while Kandē Vihāra was reached by following the Kirinda Oya. Historical evidence of the existence of Mutingana or Mutiyaṅgaṇa Vihāra at Badulla is supplied by the Pali Commentaries although this well-known Vihāra is not mentioned in the historical chronicles.

Hatthibhoga-janapada was a district in Southern Malaya, probably in the lower hills of $\bar{U}va$: in it was Pangura Vihāra. The place Atavaka mentioned in the Sīgiri Graffiti is the Sinhalese equivalent of Hatthibhoga.

Geiger identifies Lokagalla, also called Lōkā, as a locality in the valley of the Loggal Oya which flows from Passara to the Mahaväli Ganga. In its neighbourhood was Sākhāpatta or Sāpatagamu which Codrington locates as modern Hāpatgamuva, 8 miles north-west of Badulla, on the Uma Oya. Both Lokagalla and Sākhāpatta were in

- I. M: 60. 64-65.
- 2. A.S.C.A.R., 1937, 10; 1952, 42, No. 16.
- 3. E.H.B. 66, 115.
- 4. M. 35. 44; E.H.B. 115; Sig. Graff. I, App. C.

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Dhanumaṇḍala district which Geiger identifies as approximately the present Viyalwa Kōralē in Viyalwa Division. The route taken by Parakkamabāhu's troops, who were fighting their way through with the captured Tooth and Bowl Relics from Khīragāma (modern Yudagaṇāva) to Dhanumaṇḍala was:—(i) Tanagaluka, for which Codrington proposes Yakurāva; (ii) Sukhagirigāma, identified by Codrington as Guruheļa; (iii) Kaṭadorāvāda (not the same as Kaṇṭakadvāravāta); (iv) Ambagalla and (v) Taṇḍulapatta or Taṇḍuleyya, which may be Kūruvēpotakanda, near Madulsīma. Bokusala was probably near Taṇḍulapatta.⁵

(B) Lower Ūva

Lower $\bar{U}va$ is in the low-country dry zone and is a hilly region, isolated hills as well as hill-ranges frequently rising from the level ground. The main rivers which flow through it are the Kirinda Oya, Mänik Ganga, Kumbukkan Oya, Häda Oya and Gal Oya. The ancient irrigation system was not, however, elaborate or considerable, there being no great tanks and no river-diversion schemes of any great magnitude.

Mahiyangana or Mahiyapokkhala was on the bank of the Gangā (Mahaväli Ganga) and the place is first mentioned in association with the story of one of the Buddha's visits to Ceylon. It stood in the Mahānāga garden which was three yojanas long and one yojana wide. The garden was the customary meeting-place of the Yakkhas: here the Buddha appeared, banished the Yakkhas to Giridipa, and consecrated the spot where the Cetiya was afterwards built. After the Buddha's Nibbāna, the thera Sarabhu brought the Collar-bone Relic to Mahiyangana, enshrined it around with cream-coloured stones, and built over it a Cetiva 12 cubits (18 feet) high. Uddhacūlābhaya, nephew of king Devānampiya Tissa (B.C. 247-207) raised the Cetiva to a height of 30 cubits (45 feet). Dutthagamani Abhaya (B.C. 161-137), when making war with the Damilas before his accession, completed the Cetiva by raising it to a height of 80 cubits (120 feet). (The Rājāvaliya has a variant version of the foregoing narrative). Dutthagamani Abhava fought the first battle of his campaign against Elara at Mahiyangana and defeated the local Damila commander, Chatta. Vohārika Tissa (209-231) erected a parasol on the Cetiva. In the reign of Vijayakumāra, three Lambakanna nobles who subsequently became kings, lived together at Mahiyangana. Sena II (853-887) donated a maintenance village to the Vihāra, and so did Kassapa IV (898-914). In the Soraboraväva inscription of Udaya IV, dated 946, the king records his visit to Miyugun-mahaveher. Vijayabahu I (1055-1110) restored the Vihāra and granted it villages. In an inscription of Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) the district is called Miyangunu-bim. Nissanka Malla (1187-1196) records in the Galpota

^{5.} M. 70. 14-18: 74. 78, 79, 162-169; E.Z., I. 136.

inscription that he effected repairs to Miyangunu-mahavehera. Parak-kamabāhu VI (1410-1468) restored the Cetiya and re-plastered it.6

In the Sorabara inscription of Udaya IV (946), the Hopitigamu sub-division in Sorabara division is mentioned. During the hostilities between Gajabāhu and Parakkamabāhu in the 12th century, Mānābharaṇa of Rohaṇa changed sides and encamped at Sobara (Sorabara) with his army in order to attack Gajabāhu in the rear.

The cave monastery at Olagangala, about 10 miles to the south of Mahiyangana, is of very early date. The pre-Christian inscriptions there record benefactions to the Sangha by (i) Raja Śiva, and (ii) prince Śiva, son of prince Śiva and grandson of Raja Śiva: Raja Śiva may be Mahāsiva, the brother of Devānampiya Tissa, or a local ruler of this part of Rohana early in the 2nd century B.C.8

In the course of their march from Polonnaruva towards Bibilē to subdue Rohaṇa, the first hostile place reached by Parakkamabāhu's troops was Barabbala which must have been in the vicinity of Mahiyaṇaṇa. Further along the route, actions were fought at (i) Kaṇṭakavana; (ii) Ambalala; (iii) Sava, for which Codrington suggests Havanaväva, 5 miles east-north-east of Pangaragammana; and (iv) Divācandantabāṭava, where the advance was brought to a halt by powerful resistance. This last-named place was a forested valley, 2 to 4 miles long, hemmed in on both sides by high hills, and defended by a succession of strong-points: Codrington suggests the neighbourhood of Hāpola, 7 miles west-north-west of Bibilē, where the topography fits the description in the Chronicle. After being reinforced, the troops broke through the fortifications and continued their advance through (v) Kiṃsukavatthuka; (vi) Vaṭarakkhatthalī; (vii) Dāṭhāvaḍḍhana; and (viii) Sahodara, which Codrington places near Bibilē.

Codrington has discussed the route taken by Duṭṭhagāmaṇi's army, as described in two Sinhalese Chronicles, from Mahāgāma (Tissamahārāma) to Mahiyaṅgaṇa in the 2nd century B.C. The total distance was about 90 miles and the march is said to have been accomplished in eight stages. The halting places, after leaving Mahāgāma, were, in consecutive order:—

- (i) Kaluvaļa, in the vicinity of Kataragama or Karavila:
- (ii) Ēhaļa, somewhere close to Galgē on the Kataragama-Buttala track;
- (iii) Gikitta, in the neighbourhood of Tittaväl Āra or Petiyan Āra on the same track;

- (iv) Guthala or Guttala, modern *Buttala*: this was an important place in ancient times and its limits may well have extended some miles to the south of the present village;
- (v) Girigama or Kirigama, identified by Paranavitana with modern Yudaganāva;
- (vi) Niyamulla, in the vicinity Kinnarabova-Bakinigahavela-Mädagama;
- (vii) Mädagam Uyantota or Uyantota, a ford, as the name signifies, across the Gal Oya, probably near Kanulvela;
- (viii) Tungam Kasaṭapiṭiya, probably near Ūraniya;
- (ix) Mahiyangana, the destination.

This was a well-established route, if not in Duṭṭhagāmaṇi's time, certainly later, and it was marked in the 12th century by gāvuta pillars, several of which have been discovered. Contrary to popular belief today, which appears to be of recent origin and receives no support from the older works, Duṭṭhagāmaṇi's march did not include a stop at Kataragama, which, although it was a well-known place associated with a royal dynasty and the Buddhist religion from very early times, is not mentioned as a place on the route. 10

In a 7th century inscription at Nayinnēvela Vihāra, near Bibilē, the temple is named Daļaṭapava Vahara. The place Bejala is mentioned in a 6th century inscription at Tämgoḍa, also near Bibilē.¹¹

Kājaragāma, modern Kataragama, was the seat, in and prior to the very early part of the 2nd century B.C., of a family of ksatriyas, who, along with another family of kṣatriyas of Candanagāma (also in Rohana), were accorded a place of distinction at the ceremonial planting of the Bodhi Tree at Anurādhapura by Devānampiya Tissa in B.C. 246. Saplings of the tree were afterwards planted at Kajaragama and Candanagama. The Dhatuvamsa relates that Gothabhava, ruler of Rohana early in the 2nd century B.C., slew 'the ten brother-kings (dasabhātikas) of Kadaragama 'and, afterwards, by way of expiation, built a large number of Vihāras. The cave inscriptions of the 2nd century B.C. at Bovattagala (in Batticaloa district) and at Kottudamuhela (a few miles to west but in *Hambantota district*), are by the descendants in the third and fourth generations of a ruler named Gamini who had 10 sons: in the inscriptions these 10 sons are styled dasabatika, 'the ten brothers'. These royal personages cannot be identified with any of the kings or princes mentioned in the Pali Chronicles: and their inscriptions carry the symbol of a fish which appears to have been the

^{6.} D. 1. 52; M. 1. 21-42: 25. 7: 36. 33, 58: 51. 74: 52. 14: 60. 59, 63: 91. 29; Raj. 36; E.Z., II. 119: III. 78: IV. 208.

^{7.} M. 70. 187; E.Z., III. 78.

^{8.} A.S.C.A.R., 1952. 33, 41.

^{9.} M. 74. 51-78.

^{10. &#}x27;Gāvuta Pillars', by H. W. Codrington, C.J.S. (G) II. 129-134. Codrington's two Papers, 'Notes on Ceylon Topography in the 12th century' in J.R.4.S. (C.B.) XXIX and XXX, Nos. 75 and 78, are indispensable for a study of the campaigns of Vijayabāhu I and Parakkamabāhu I in Rohaṇa.

^{11.} A.I.C. 99; A.S.C.A.R., 1952. 41; E.Z., V. 86.

dynastic emblem of this particular royal family. The existence of an independent royal dynasty in South-east Ceylon has been discussed by Paranavitana who came to the conclusion that the 10 brother-kings (dasabhātikas) of Kadaragama mentioned in the Dhātuvamsa are in all probability identical with the 10 brothers, the sons of Gamini, of the Bovattagala and Kottadamuhela inscriptions. With regard to the kṣatriyas of Kājaragāma he says :-- 'the origin of the kṣatriyas of Kataragama is obscure. The only mention of them in the Chronicle is in Chapter XIX, verse 54 of the Mahavamsa. There is no statement to show that they were, in any way, related to the royal family then ruling at Anuradhapura. It appears possible that the ksatrivas of Kataragama were connected with a stream of immigration to this Island quite distinct from the main stream whose legends and traditions are the theme of the chroniclers of Anuradhapura. It may well be that the ksatriyas of Kataragama were no other than the dasabhātikas of the Dhatuvamsa and the inscriptions'. It should be added that at Henannēgala in the Batticaloa district there is yet another royal epigraph of this period with the fish emblem, and it would appear that the realm of this independent dynasty of Kataragama extended over a great part of the present Batticaloa district as well as over the region now commonly called $Y\bar{a}la$. 12

The partly ruined thupa at the Buddhist monastery now known as Kiri Vehera at Kataragama is called the Mangala-maha-ceva ('auspicious great cetiya') at Kajaragama Rajamahavihara in a 5th century royal inscription in situ: the inscription also mentions the village Jetugama, identified by Paranavitana as modern Detagamuva. about a mile from Kataragama. Some of the bricks at the thupa bear mason's-marks of the 1st century B.C., the period of its original construction. Another inscription of the 2nd century at this site records the enlarging of the thupa and the construction of entrance steps by a monk residing at Dakavahanaka in Kadahavapigama, which Paranavitana suggests may be present Katagamuva, 9 miles to the east. Dappula, ruler of Rohana (circa 659) is stated to have built a Vihāra at Kājaragāma: the work was one of restoration since the Vihāra was in existence 7 centuries earlier. Kājaragāma became the temporary capital of Rohana from about 1050 to 1056 during the Cola conquest: Loka, Kassapa and Vijayabāhu ruled there in turn until the place was captured and plundered by the Colas. 13

With regard to the Dēvāla at *Kataragama*. now one of the most celebrated places of pilgrimage in Ceylon, Dr. Paranavitana's observations are pertinent and authoritative. He says:—'The literature, both Sinhalese and Tamil, connecting Skanda with *Kataragama*, is of recent origin; and there are, at the place, no vestiges whatever of the prevalence of a Hindu cult in early days. Therefore, the tradition.

(that the shrine of Skanda was built at Kataragama by Dutthagāmani in fulfilment of a vow) may well be doubted . . . The shrine has always been, and still is, under the supervision of Sinhalese priests (Kapurālas); and, in the annual festival, I was informed by the priest, that the ceremonies connected with the Bo-tree and the Dagaba take precedence to those of the god. Some of the legends associated with Kataragamadeviyo are not known in India about Skanda; and the prevailing belief among the Sinhalese is that he is one of the four guardian deities of Cevlon and is destined to become a Buddha in the future. Therefore. we may be justified in concluding that Kataragama-deviyo was originally one of the local deities or Bodhisattvas of the Sinhalese Buddhists: and in process of time was identified with the Puranic deity Skanda, some centuries ago '. In a later work, Dr. Paranavitana writes that the four guardian gods of the Sinhalese Buddlists who 'according to popular belief, have taken upon themselves the task of protecting the people of Cevlon and the religion of the Buddha . . . are Upulvan of Devundara, Sumana, who has his abode on Samanola, Vibhīṣāṇa, the centre of whose cult is Kälaniya, and Skanda-Kumāra of Kataragama '.14

The greater part of lower $\bar{U}va$ as well as $M\bar{a}gam$ Pattu in Hambantota district fell into that division which was known as Aṭṭhasahassa-raṭṭha or -desa, 'the province of 8,000 villages', whose capital in the 11th and 12th centuries was Uddhanadvāra or Udundora, the present village of $Galab\ddot{a}dda$ at the 29th mile on the $Moner\bar{a}gala-Pottuvil$ road. Aṭṭhasahassa comprised all the region to east of the $Valav\bar{e}$ Gaiga. A great converging attack was delivered on Uddhanadvāra, the residence of Queen Sugalā by Parakkamabāhu's troops in order to capture her and the Tooth and Bowl Relics. 16

The principal district in Atthasahassa was Guttahāla-maṇḍala, also called Guthala and Guttala, present *Buttala*, a region in which there was always much warfare, principally civil war. Places specifically mentioned as situated within Guttahāla district were:—

(i) Nakulanāga-kaṇṇikā or Nakulanagara, not far from Guttahāla itself: it was the area extending over the hilly region to northward of Vällavāya. In this sub-division was the village Mahisadoṇika or Mīdeṇi, present Middeṇiya about 8 miles north of Vällavāya, the birthplace of the warrior Khañjadeva. On Panjalipabbata, also called Anjalipavva, near the source of the Karinda-nadī (present Kirinda Oya), there was an ancient monastery, very probably identical with the rock-temple now known as Kandē Vihāra, 5 miles north of Vällavāya; 16

^{12.} M. 19. 54, 62; M.T. 407, 21; C.J.S. (G) II. 99, 100, 114, 115, 175, 176; Sir Paul Pieris Felicitation Volume 65-67.

^{13.} M. 45. 45: 57. 2, 67: 58. 6: 73. 75; E.Z., III. 215, 218: IV. 214.

^{14.} E.Z., III, 213, note 3; 'The Shrine of Upulvan at Devundara', A. S. Memoirs, VI, 19.

^{15.} M. 61. 16, 24, 25: 75. 154.

^{16.} M. 23. 77: 24. 17: 25. 6: 32. 14: 58. 34: 61. 12: 74. 154: 75. 15; E.M. 23. 26: 33. 36; Thv. 135, 154; E.H.B. 69.

- Javamāla ford across the Mänik Ganga at Buttala;17
- (iii) Cūlanganiyapitthi or Yudaganāpitiva, the battlefield of the two princes, Abhaya and Tissa, about B.C. 170: it is popularly identified with present Yudaganāva, about 2 miles northward of Buttala:18
- (iv) Kālavallimandapa, also called Kālavallika-mandapa, was the residence of the renowned thera Mahānāga in the reign of Dutthagāmaņi Abhava (B.C. 161-137), and it was six hours journey on foot (15 to 18 miles) from Buttala. Kālavāpi in Guttahāla district was very probably the same as Kālavalli tank in Rohana restored by Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186). The Pūjāvaliya ascribes to Kāvantissa in the 2nd century B.C. the foundation of a vihāra in Rohana named Kalumuhudu. All these names may signify the same place. (Kaluvala, Dutthagāmani's first halt, was different). The location was probably southward of Buttala:19
- (v) Maccutthala, to westward of Kataragama;23
- (vi) Khadirangani, a stronghold to north or north-east of Kataragama and between that place and Buttala;21
- (vii) Kubūlagalla, which may be the same as Kumbugāma, and was possibly near Kumbukkana;22
- (viii) Panasabukka, apparently the same as Pankavelaka, the scene of two battles: it may be modern Kosgoda, just south of Monerāgala:23
- (ix) Katagāma;24
- (x) Ādipāda-jambu-padesa, also called Ādipādapunnāgakhanda, a sub-district, probably the area around Dambagalla. 5 miles north of Monerāgala;25
- (xi) Uruvelā-mandala, a sub-district with a township and tank of the same name, also called Etumala, and identified by Codrington as present Etimole, 8 miles south-east of Monerāgala: Queen Sugalā took refuge here but her troops were defeated, and although she herself escaped from the battlefield, the Tooth and Bowl Relics were captured. Parakkamabāhu I restored Uruvelā tank;26

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17. M. 24. 22.
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 - (xii) Maharīvara, a stronghold, present Mārāva, 27
 - (xiii) Dematavala, identical with Dematahal or Gamitthavāli or Gamitthapāli Vihāra founded by Kākavanna Tissa early in 2nd B.C., and identified by Codrington as Okkampitiya where the temple is still called Dematavala. Inscriptions in the vicinity include a pre-Christian cave inscription and a grant by Gothābhaya (249-263);28

(xiv) Voyalaggamu, situated between Maliarīvara and Uruvelā.²⁹ Khīragāma, also called Girigama and Kirigama, was a place on the route from Mahāgāma to Mahiyangana, and Dutthagāmani's army halted there. At Khīragāma, Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) built the Ratanāvali Cetiva, 180 feet high. Mahākhīragāma, mentioned in the Commentaries, is probably identical with Khiragama, and near it was Lonagiri or Lenagiri. Ğothābhaya of Rohana built Khīrasāla Vihāra. Paranavitana has identified Khīragāma or Girigama or Kirigama with modern Yudaganāva, 2 miles from Buttala, where there are the ruins of the colossal thupa built by Parakkamabahu I.30

Sappanārukokilla was the place where the Senāpati Rakkha died and on the site of his cremation Parakkamabāhu I built a large Alms Hall: its location was probably in the vicinity of Buttala.31

Sumanagalla-padesa, opposite Voyalaggamu, was, according to Codrington, an area in the northern part of Buttala Vädirata Kõralē. Kantakadvāravāta has been identified by Codrington as Katupālālla, just south of Dambagalla. For Corambagāma, Codrington proposes Horambāva, south of Monerāgala. Māragallaka or Nigrodhamāragalla or Māragiri is identified by Codrington as Maragala, the main peak of the Moneragala range.32

Bhattasupa was eastward or southward of Okkampitiya.33

The ruins at Habassa, 6 miles south of Okkampitiva, are named Ulibikala-Naka-mahavihara in an inscription in situ of the Uvaraja Naka, son of Utara Maharaja (not mentioned in the Chronicles) and grandson of Vahaba Maharaja (Vasabha, 67-111). To it were granted (i) Ulibikala canal; (ii) Mataviya; (iii) Abaviya; and (iv) Gavidaviva (see Gavita under Cittalapabbata in Hambantota district). Another ruined site in this neighbourhood, named Lēdorugala, is called Huligiriva Vihara in a 2nd century inscription of 'two brotherkings '.34

^{18.} M. 24. 19; Raj. 34.

^{19.} M. 61. 16: 79. 35; M.T. 606; Puj. 16; E.H.B. 69, 120.

^{20.} M. 58. 35.

^{21.} M. 57. 72: 58. 36.

^{22.} M. 58. 36: 75. 149, 167.

^{23.} M. 61. 12, 17.

^{24.} M. 61. 16.

^{25.} M. 61. 15: 75. 15.

^{26.} M. 74. 88, 125: 79. 83; Puj. 34.

^{28.} M. 22. 23, 74, 140; E.M., 22. 65; Puj. 16, 29; Raj. 57; A.I.C. 18; A.S.C.A.R. 1953, 27.

^{29.} M. 74. 122.

^{30.} M. 74. 163: 79. 71; Dhv. 31; E.H.B. 87, 104, 89, 112, App. IB; A.S.C.A.R. 1955. 27, 28.

^{31.} M. 74. 135.

^{32.} M. 55. 26: 74. 55, 123: 75. 15, 182; E.Z., I. 136.

^{33.} M. 74. 142.

^{34.} E.Z., IV. 217.

The place Diyakavāna is mentioned in a 10th century inscription at Maragala Estate, Monerāgala. The rock-temple at Monerāgala is named Mahanama-Jeṭatisapava-Rajamahavihara after the 4th century king who founded it. Close to Monerāgala are other cave monasteries with pre-Christian inscriptions, namely, (i) Vāliyāya, near the 24th mile; (ii) a group of 5 inscribed caves very high up on the hill above; (iii) Madugasmulla, near the 27th mile where one inscription of the 4th century bears the place-name, Taburavu; (iv) Galabādda, near the 28th mile; and (v) Kimbulāvela, near the 30th mile. 35

At Välaellugodakanda, off Dombagahavela at the 34th mile on the Monerāgala-Pottuvil road, there is a series of cave inscriptions which give the names of the king (Saddhā Tissa, B.C. 137-119); the king's Senāpati, Agidata; the Senāpati's wife, Naga; and the lady's father, Senāpati Puśadeva. Nandhimitta, the Senāpati of Duṭṭhagāmaṇi Abhaya, was succeeded in that office by another famous commander, Phussadeva: and in the reign of Saddhā Tissa, who succeeded Duṭṭhagāmaṇi, the Senāpati was the latter's son-in-law, Aggidatta. 36

On the edge of the precipice at *Mandagala*, near the 41st mile on the *Monerāgala-Pottuvil* road, is a 4th century inscription by the rativa (district chieftain) resident at Galataraka.

There is a small group of inscribed, pre-Christian caves at Galkotuva, near the 40th mile on the Monerāgala-Pottuvil road.

At *Kiṇivālgoḍa*, about 5 miles east of *Dambagalla*, is one of the oldest epigraphs in Ceylon: it is dated in the reign of the prince Naga, that is, Mahānāga, the brother of Devānampiya Tissa and the first ruler of Rohana.³⁷

Makkhakudrūsa or Mandakavidutota, where the prince Kitti, and afterwards, Loka dwelt in the 11th century was in the Buttala region. Dappula (circa 659) built Kavudu Vihāra. There is a place named Kavudāva, near Monerāgala.³⁸

Codrington identifies the Girimandala district with the hill country west or north-west of *Buttala* and probably the *Koslanda* area.³⁹

In the 5th century inscription of great length at *Hingurēgala*, near *Sudupāṇavela* at *Vällavāya*, a record was made of the names of the fields which were purchased on behalf of the monastery at the place from a military unit encamped at Vasakavahara camp at Kahabatarayatana in Mahagama district. Other place-names in the inscription are:—(i) Namaḍa-pagaragama, where there was a dam; (ii) Narapagaragama; (iii) Sanayagama; (iv) Umanaroda-adara dam; (v) Ganayagama; (vi) Kahabagala; (vii) Gamaṭataṭa dam;

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(viii) Kaṭunahabiya-taṭa; (ix) Maraṭa dam; (x) Baba-atara dam; (xi) Badadavara; (xii) Ula-araba; (xiii) Patanaga-ubara; (xiv) Pasara-taṭaka; (xv) Madahababa; and (xvi) Kayuabaliya.⁴⁰

The ruins at Pilikema, 2 miles west of the 37th mile on the Ham-bantota-Vällavāya road, are called Pahaṇabena Vihara in a 4th century inscription in situ. Other places named are:—(i) Mahageviḍhagama; (ii) Abalavatuka dam on the Cukarida Oya which is the present $Kud\bar{a}$ Oya, a branch of the Kirinda Oya; (iii) Akalayugu; (iv) Yalagama; and (v) Akasakayota. 41

Vālivāsaragāma was situated in a locality where many roads meet and it was to west of Dīghavāpi district and probably in present $Nikavātiva~K\bar{o}ral\bar{e}^{.42}$

Hintālavanagāma was 40 or 50 miles from Dīghavāpi and eastward of Khīragāma: a strong fortification was built there. There is a hill called *Kitulhela* about 6 miles north-east of *Dambagalia*. Near Hintālavanagāma were:—(i) Gallambatṭhikagāma, which may have been across the boundary in Dīghavāpi district; (ii) Mūlānagāma; (iii) Kuddālamaṇḍala, between Hintālavanagāma and Mūlānagāma; Aggabodhi II built Mahaudalu tank; and (iv) Kittirājavālukagāma, between Hintālavanagāma and Voyalaggamu, close to and west of the former: there is a hill named *Välihela*, 2 miles south of the 34th mile on the *Monerāgala-Pottuvil* road. Uladā was between Voyalaggamu and Kittirājavālukagāma, west of the latter. Vāluka was between Uladā and Voyalaggamu, and west of the former; Goṭhābaya of Rohaṇa built Vālukātittha Vihāra: there is a *Vāli-Ār*, 3 miles east of *Vāllavāya*. Huyalagāma was west of Vāluka and probably in the *Vāllavāya* area.⁴³

Harītakīvāta was east of Kumbugāma and has been identified by Codrington as *Aralugasmāda*, a hamlet of *Old Alupota*. Kaṇhavāṭa was east of Harītakīvāta and is probably modern *Kiṇivālgoḍa*, near *Kolladeṇiya*. Vanagāma, where Queen Sugala was finally captured, was eastward of Kaṇhavāta and closer to Udundora: it is possibly identical with *Bāddēgama*, north of *Dombagahavela*.⁴⁴

The Vihāra named Talangara or Talangaratissapabbata or Talanka or Talanga or Talangatissapabbata or Talaguru existed from the 2nd century B.C., but the name of the king who founded it is not stated. It is the very remote, ruined site, still known as Talaguru Vihāra, which lies deep in the forest in the north-east corner of the present Yāla North Intermediate Zone, about 3 miles south of the Kumbukkan Oya: it is a place of pilgrimage for the people in the

^{35.} C.J.S. (G) II. 23; A.S.C.A.R., 1951, 64.

^{36.} U.C.R. VIII, No. 2, 116; A.S.C.A.R., 1940-45, 149.

^{37.} U.C.R. VII, No. 4, 240; VIII, No. 2, 123.

^{38.} M. 55. 6; Puj. 29, 33; Raj. 57.

^{39.} M. 51. 111.

^{40.} A.I.C. 78; A.S.M. VI. 25; E.Z., V. 117-119.

^{41.} A.I.C. 77; E.Z., IV. 126, 128.

^{42.} M. 74. 177.

^{43.} M. 74. 162. 75. 7, 12, 15-18; Puj. 28; Dhv. 31.

^{44.} M. 75. 18, 174.

One of the last strongholds occupied by the followers of Queen Sugalā before her final defeat was Badaguṇa. Baddhaguṇa Vihāra and tank are mentioned earlier in the reign of Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110): the Cetiya destroyed by the Cōlas was restored by the Uparāja who built in the forest close to the Vihāra a large tank. This is almost certainly the large, breached reservoir now known as Buduguṇa-vāva in the south-east corner of Ūva.46

Close to Talaguru Vihāra and Buduguna-väva above, in deep forest, is a ruined site of pre-Christian antiquity known as Divulbāna Vihāra. All this area, as well as the region between the Hāḍa Oya and the Kumbukkan Oya, remains largely unexplored. At Vattēgama, about 10 miles south of the 38th mile on the Monerāgala-Pottuvil road, the inscriptions at the ancient temple there are of the 1st to 5th centuries: and at Manānahela, 3 miles off the road to Vattēgama, are ruins with pre-Christian cave inscriptions.⁴⁷

Beyond Okkampitiya are the ruins at Māligāvila and Dambēgoḍa which once formed one monastery. There are at the site a colossal image of the Buddha in the full round, 34 feet high, and much stonework in limestone. The ruins have been tentatively identified as Ariyākari Vihāra of the Chronicle.⁴⁸

At Kōnkāṭiya (3 miles south of Buttala), Kōmārikāgala (7 miles south of Pālvatta), Ātilivāva (ab out 4 miles west of Telulla), Sīmāpahurakanda (near Angunukolapālāssa on the Tanamalvila-Hambēgamuva road), and other sites in Vāllavāya Kōralē there are pre-Christian inscriptions.

'The most remarkable Mahāyāna sculptures in Ceylon are at Buduruvāgala, about 3 miles south-west of Vāllavāya. A group of colossal figures has here been carved on the rock on a scale comparable to that of the Buddhas at Avukana and Sāssēruva. The figures are in high relief. Some of the details are not carved in stone but merely indicated and completed in stucco. They were also originally given a coating of paint, traces of which are still visible in some places. The central figure of the group is a colossal Buddha some fifty feet in height . . . and is attended on either side by two Bodhisattvas, the one on the Buddha's right representing Avalokita as proved by the figure of the Dhyāni Buddha Amitābha in the head-dress. The corresponding figure on the Buddha's left has no Dhyāni Buddha in the head-dress: but as the triad of Buddha, Avalokita and Maitreya, occurs very often in Buddhist iconography, we may identify this

figure with Maitreva. The Bodhisattva to the right of the Buddha is attended on the left by a female figure and on the right by a male. If the identification of the central figure with Avalokita is right, the female figure may represent Tārā. In Buddhist iconography, Avalokita is usually attended by Tārā on one side and Hayagrīva or Sudhanakumāra on the other. The male figure in question cannot be Hayagriva as the horse's neck is not shown: therefore, it may represent Sudhanakumāra. The Bodhisattva on the left side (of the Buddha) is attended by two male figures whose identity it is not possible to determine. There is nothing so tar found to indicate the period these sculptures may be assigned to; nor has it been possible to trace the mention of this place in the Chronicles. Some of the figures, especially the Bodhisattva to the left of the Buddha, show a high degree of artistic merit and on grounds of style they may be ascribed to a period anterior to the Polonnaruva epoch. Probably, the 9th century would not be too early a date '.50

The Velassa Division is a very hilly region and the irrigation facilities provided in it in ancient times were necessarily scanty owing to the nature of the terrain. The popular belief that Velassa means 'a hundred thousand fields' can easily be seen to be absurd on a cursory examination of the one inch map. Ancient ruins are also few and probably mark the localities in which there were settled populations in former times. Those of pre-Christian origin, as their epigraphs prove, are (i) Kahaṭa-atu-hela, near Nilgala; (ii) Buddhama, about 16 miles north of Siyambalā-anduva; (iii) Uhapiṭa-lena, 2 miles northwest o the Vahavē hot spring; and (iv) Bändiyagalgē, near Hēnēbādda.51

Govindamala, now known as Govindahela or 'Westminster Abbey', was the fortress of the Ādipāda Bhuvanekabāhu during the reign of the invader Māgha (1214-1235): on the summit of this imposing and formidable rock, the prince fortified himself and kept up resistance in this part of Rohaṇa.⁵²

The Bintänna Division of Uva was more thickly populated and better served with tanks and other irrigation works than the Velassa Division. The area around Mahiyangana and Uraniya has already been described. At Māvaragala, near Dambāna, 13 miles from Padiyatalāva, there was a fairly large cave monastery of pre-Christian date: among the donors of the caves were district chieftains and village headmen. At Māpākadavāva, south of Mahiyangana, there is an inscription of the 9th or 10th century granting immunities. 53

^{45.} E.H.B. 65, 70, 120, 121; M. 32. 52; M.T. 606; Thv. 213.

^{46.} M. 60. 80: 74. 124.

^{47.} A.S.C.A.R., 1954, 37.

^{48.} A.S.C.A.R., 1951, 37, 38; M. 45. 60-63.

^{49.} C.J.S. (G) II. 24; U.C.R. VIII, No. 2, 122.

^{50.} S. Paranavitana in C.J.S. (G) II. 50-51.

^{51.} A.S.C.A.R., 1950. 29.

^{52.} M. 81. 4-6; J.R.A.S. (C.B.), No. 61, 167ff and No. 67, 279ff.

^{53.} A.S.C.A.R., 1955, 34.

CHAPTER VI

THE HAMBANTOTA DISTRICT

(A) Māgam Pattu

Maliāgāma, modern Tissamahārāma (locally called Tihava), was the capital of the principality of Rohana. The Sakka prince, Rohana, is said to have founded the settlement named Rohana in the 5th century B.C.: it is probable that here Rohana is synonymous with Mahāgāma. In the second half of the 3rd century B.C., the Uparāja Mahānāga, the younger brother and heir of king Devānampiya Tissa. left Anuradhapura for fear of his life, surrendering his right to the succession, and came to Mahāgāma where he established his seat as the ruler of Ronana. None of the Chronicles offers an explanation as to how Mahānāga was able to supplant or supersede the lineal descendants of the original ruler, Rohana. Nevertheless, it is a fact that he was a ruler of Rohana at the period assigned to him by the Chronicles. because epigraphical corroboration is furnished by the inscriptions at Kinivälgoda, Kusalānakanda and Deviyannēkema (all in Rohana) in which he is described as Uparaja Naga and a ruler. Contemporary with Mahānāga were two noble families of kṣatriyas at Kājaragāma (Kataragama) and Candanagāma (also in Rohana) who were accorded a place of honour at the ceremonial planting of the Bodhi Tree at Anuradliapura: of the eight Bodhi saplings, two were planted at the seats of these two ksatriya families, but not at Mahāgāma. The Dhātuvamsa mentions the 'ten brother-kings (dasabhātika) of Kadaragama' who were slain by Gothābhaya, the grandson of Mahānāga, an action which was apparently disapproved by the people because Gothābhaya is said to have built a number of vihāras afterwards by way of expiation. At Kottadämuhela in the Yāla area and at Bōvattagala, across the Kumbukkan Oya, there are inscriptions of the 2nd century B.C. of a royal dynasty, among whom were ten brothers (daśabatika), whose distinctive emblem was that of a fish. Paranavitana has expressed the opinion that 'it may well be that the Kṣatrivas of Kataragama were no other than the dasabhātikas of the Dhātuvamsa and the inscriptions'. Apparently, the differences between Mahānāga's royal family of Mahāgāma and the kṣatriya royal family of Kataragama reached a crisis which ended in bloodshed and the termination of the territorial authority of the latter in the reign of Gothābhaya early in the 2nd century B.C.1

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The Hambantoṭa district is one of the most arid areas in Ceylon. The coast-line is indented by several lagoons or lēvāyas in which salt forms naturally by evaporation during the dry season. The land is mostly flat, broken by a few inland hills. The lower courses of the Valavē Ganga, which is a perennial river, Kirinda Oya and Mänik Ganga flow through the district. These and other water resources were tapped for irrigation, but large reservoirs were few although village tanks were numerous, and the irrigation system was not nearly so large or complex as in the Anurādhapura, Polonnaruva and Kurunāgala district.

Not infrequently Rohana was ruled by princes who were independent or semi-independent of the kings at Anuradhapura. Revolts and uprisings usually originated there. Always it was the stronghold of freedom in which the Sinhalese retained their independence or built up resistance when the country was occupied by foreign invaders. A prince who governed Rohana in the 1st century was styled Rohinika while a Minister who performed the same duties in the 2nd century bore the title Rohana-bojika. The first large tank at Mahāgāma, Tissavāpi (present Tissavāva), was built by Ilanāga (33 43): he also built the Dūra tank. In an inscription of Vasabha (67-111) shares in Duratisa tank were assigned to a Vihāra in Mahāgāma: Dūra or Duratisa tank was probably the tank now known as Yōdavāva. A Viliāra name Mahāvāpi or Mahāvāsa, associated with a tank of the same name, was the abode of many monks in early times: the tank is probably present Viravila, also known as Mahaväva. The Mahāpāli or Royal Alms Hall at Mahāgāma, at which alms were distributed daily at the ruler's expense, was built by Aggabodhi (circa 600), independent ruler of Rohana. Mahāgāma was not a walled town like Anuradhapura and Polonnaruva: its ruins bear no comparison with those of Anuradhapura or Polonnaruva and illustrate the relative poverty of Rohana.2

The oldest Vihāra at Mahāgāma was that founded by Mahānāga in the 3rd century B.C. and known as the Nāgamahā or Mahāgāmanāga or Mahānāga or Nāga Vihāra. It was restored, its thūpa was enlarged and its area extended by Ilanāga (33-43). An early inscription, of which the text is doubtful, records the grant of Golagama to Nakamahavihara. The Goṭha sea, by which Golagama may have been situated, is mentioned in the reign of Kākavaṇṇa Tissa.³

The Yatthālaya Vihāra mentioned in the Mahāvamsa as the place where Mahānāga's son, Yatthālakatissa, was born is not the present Yaṭāla Vihāra at Tissa: it is clear from the context that Yaṭṭhālaya Vihāra was not in Rohana.⁴

^{1.} M. 9. 10: 22. 8: 35. 32: 45. 42: 74. 157; E.Z. III, 182; Rsv. II. 4; M. 19. 54, 62; M.T. 407, 21; C.J.S. (G) II. 18, 25, 99, 100, 114, 115, 175, 176; Sir Paul Pieris Fel. Vol. 65-67.

^{2.} M. 35. 32: 45. 42; C. J.S. (G) II. 8, 25; E.Z. III, 182; Rsv. II, 4.

^{3.} M. 22. 9, 48-50: 55. 31, 32: 36. 34; M.T. 649, 32; A.I.C. 4.

^{4.} M. 22. 7. 8.

Mahānāga founded the Uddhakandaraka or Uddhakandarādī Vihāra. An ancient temple 2 miles east of Yōdakandiya, founded in pre-Christian times on the evidence of its cave inscriptions, now bears the name Uddhakandara, but its identity with the ancient vihāra of that name is very uncertain.⁵

The Mahāvarnsa does not mention Candagiri Vihāra at Mahāgāma till the 12th century, but the Sinhalese Chronicles vary in attributing the foundation of Sandagiri Vihāra to Mahānāga and to Kāvantissa. Its ruins, still known as Sandagiri, lie a mile to east of *Tissavāva*. A large, octagonal, inscribed stone to south of the ruins bears inscriptions of a son of Bhātikābhaya (B.C. 22-A.C. 7) and of Vasabha (67-111): they record the grant to the Uposatha House of shares in Duratisa tank, of Abagamaka tank and of fields in Patigama. Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110) restored Candagiri Vihāra.

Tissamahāvihāra, also called Tissārāma and Tissamahārāma, was founded by Kākavaṇṇa Tissa early in the 2nd century B.C. In it was the Silāpassaya Pariveṇa. Duṭṭhagāmaṇi Abhaya made offerings at Tissamahāvihāra before setting out on his campaign against Elāra. The name Akuju Mahagama or Akujuka occurs in two inscriptions of the 2nd century and appears to refer to Tissamahāvihāra. In an inscription of king Mahānāma (406-428) the Vihāra is called Mahagama Rajamahavahera, and a grant is made to it of a large extent of land at Palitoṭugama, which, from its name, must have been situated on the banks of the Kirinda Oya. Dappula, ruler of Rohaṇa (circa 659), donated the village of Kattikapabbata to the Vihāra. In the inscription of Dappula IV (927) at Deṭagamuva, Tissamahāvihāra is called Mahavehera.

The ancient names of the *Mänik* and *Yaṭāla* Vihāras at *Tissa* are not known. At the former there are a pre-Christian inscription and a 7th/8th century inscription in an undecipherable script, while at the latter there are inscriptions of the 6th to roth centuries, but the Vihāras are not named.⁸

The district around Mahāgāma is called Mahagama-janavaya (P.-janapada) in a 5th century inscription: in the 12th century the Cūlavamsa calls it Mahāgāma-maṇḍala.9

The Mahānuggala Cetiya, also called Mahāmangala and Mahāduggala, was built by Kākavaṇṇa Tissa. The Pūjāvaliya ascribes to this king a vihāra named Mahagamtoṭa. 10

- 5. M. 22. 9; E.M. 22. 32.
- 6. M. 60, 61; Dhv. 30; Puj. 16; A.I.C. 23; C.J.S. (G) II, 17, 18, 25; A.S.C.A.R. 1951, 38.
- 7. M. 22, 23, 28: 25. 2: 45. 49; E.M. 25. 2: Puj. 16; Dhv. II, 83; A.I.C. 67; E.Z. III. 215, 216, 223; J.R.A.S. (C.B.) New Series, II, 134.
 - 8. C.J.S. (G) II. 24, 25; A.S.C.A.R. 1954, 37.
 - 9. E.Z.V. 116; M. 74. 157.
 - 10. M. 24. 8; E.M. 24. 17: M.T. 462: Puj. 16.

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The Dāṭhaggabodhi Pariveṇa, probably at Mahāgāma, was built by Aggabodhi, ruler of Rohaṇa (circa 600). 11

In Paṭīma or Pilima Vihāra, probably in or close to Mahāgāma, Dappula (circa 659) erected a large Image House and installed a Stone Image of the Buddha. The same ruler built at Kāṇagāma, not far from Mahāgāma, a hospital for the blind. 12

Tūlādhāra or Tulākārapabbata Vihāra, on the hill Tūlādhārapabbata or Taralpavva, is stated to have been founded by Kākavanna Tissa who ruled Rohana in the first half of the 2nd century B.C. It was a famed seat of learning in the 1st century and among its great preceptors were the theras Mahadhanunarakkhita and Mahapaduma. Around Veherakema, a considerable rock-group about 1 1/2 miles north-north-east of the village of Kirinda, are several drip-ledged caves and other ruins as well as a number of inscriptions dating from the 2nd century B.C. to the 7th century. In some of the inscriptions the site is named Tulakarapavarata or Tulakarapavi Mahavihara: this, therefore, is the ancient Tilladhara Vihara. At the foot of Tuladharapabbata was the village Vihāravāpi or Vēravāgama, the birthplace of the warrior Labhiyavasabha. Other place-names occurring in the inscriptions at this site are: (i) Pumagama; (ii) Paharadora; (iii) Bariganada; (iv) Netulavaha; and (v) Cadulagama. Aggabodhi IV (667-683) granted the village Tuladhara to the Practising House which he built for the thera Dāṭhāsiva of Nāgasālā: but whether this village is identical with Tulādhāra of Rohana is uncertain.13

Vihāradevī is said to have come ashore at Lankā Vihāra on the coast near Mahāgāma: the landing place is also called Tolaka Vihāra and Kotthalatā. Kāvantissa is said to have built Vihāramahādevī Vihāra or Bisōvalu Viliāra, presumably to commemorate the landing place. All these names appear, therefore, to refer to the same place. The popular identification of Kirinda as Vihāradevi's landing place has no historical authority. The inscription of the 1st century B.C. at the ruins at Kirinda (a contemporary copy of which also exists at Tissamahārāma) is in verse and it is unique in its subject matter. It records that at the Vihāra at this spot the Uvaraja Naka (afterwards king Mahādāṭhikamahānāga) abandoned false beliefs and was converted to Buddhism. 'The Chronicles give us to understand that from B.C. 246 onwards Buddhism was the firm and only faith of the Sinhalese monarchy and people, and the accuracy of that assertion is not impugned by this solitary instance of one dissident prince professing other beliefs and recanting them in favour of Buddhism. This singular event is not recorded in the Chronicles or Commentaries, but it was

II. M. 45. 42.

^{12.} M. 45. 43, 44; Puj. 29.

^{13.} M. 23. 90: 33. 90: 35. 31: 46. 12; Sig. Graff, mention Taral-pā-piriven, 1, App. C; Thv. 136; Dhv. 83; E.H.B. 30, 84, 121; A.I.C. 67 (a); C.J.S. (G) 111, 26.

apparently of sufficient local importance for the recantation to be publicised by the engraving of two inscriptions, one at the Uvaraja's seat (Mahāgāma) and the other at the Vihāra where the conversion occurred '.¹⁴

Patungalu Vihāra is ascribed to Kāvantissa. There are ruins on the rock-group now known as *Paṭanangala* in the *Ruhuṇa National Park*. The anchorage here was probably used from early times. ¹⁵

The extensive ruins at Situlpavuva Vihāra in the Ruhuna National Park are identified by inscriptions in situ, in which the site is named Citalapavata Vihara, with the renowned Cittalapabbata Vihāra of the Chronicles and Commentaries. Kākavanna Tissa, ruler of Rohana early in the 2nd century B.C., is credited with its foundation. It was one of the most celebrated Vihāras of ancient times and its monks had a great reputation for their pietv and learning. Dutthagamani's paladin, Phussadeva, hailed from the village Gavita, near Cittalapabbata. (Cf. Gavidaviya in the $Hab\ddot{a}ssa$ inscription under Chapter V (B). Lower $\bar{U}va$). One of the cetivas at the Vihāra enshrined the relics of a Samanera who became an Arahant and it was called Tissattheracetiya. A meditation-hall existing in the 1st century was known as Ninkaponna-padhānaghara. Vasabha built 10 thūpas in Cittalakūta (Cittalapabbata) Vihāra. The inscriptions on the site record rich endowments of land in the 1st century and the building of a cetiya by Mahallaka Nāga. Dappula, ruler of Rohana, granted the village Gonnavittlii to the Vihara: this name may be preserved in modern Gonagala in the Ruhuna National Park. Kuravakagalla, where an action was fought between the troops of Parakkamabāhu I and those of the rebel Queen Sugala, is very probably identical with Koravakgala, one of the hills in the Situl pavuva entourage. The 61 cave inscriptions of the 2nd and 1st B.C. at this site include two in which Dutthagamani's paladins, Nandhimitta and Velusumana, are mentioned. The place names mentioned are: (i) Pasanadariyagama; (ii) Totagamiya, evidently a village on the Mänik Ganga near Varahāna; (iii) Vanakagamiva; (iv) Viladaka, in which was Majimagama; (v) Kavarasaka, in which was Kanikerapali: Gothābhaya of Rohana built Kanikārasēla Vihāra which was probably identical with Kaṇikāravālika-Samudda-Vihāra; (vi) Mahahalagama; (vii) Kibabadi; (vii) Siva-nakara; (viii) Dubalayahatigama: Saddhā Tissa built Dubbalavāpitissaka Vihara and Kanittha Tissa added to it an Uposatha House; (ix) Dakinitisa tank, shares in which were assigned to the Vihāra; and (x) Hitadalaya. A district named Ala-janapada in this region is mentioned in the Commentaries: the wife of the Nagaraja of/named Alanda renewed the gift of a canal abandoned by the monks of the

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Vihāra. The Commentaries also mention a ford named Kuruvakatittha, which name is preserved in modern *Koravaka-väva*. 16

At Palutthagiri the Cōlas suffered two severe defeats in 1017 and 1041. In both instances the position taken up by the Sinhalese forces was essentially defensive, where they could withstand siege and make offensive forays as well as trap their enemies. Hocart has proposed the identification of Palutthagiri with modern Palatupāna, and in the identity of the two names he is doubtless right. The nearest rocky hills to Palatupāna which could have served as a fortress and still bears signs of having been one in the past, are the rock-group now called Magul-maha-vihāra in the Ruhuna National Park. On these rocks was a large pre-Christian monastery with several inscribed caves. 17

Sīlavakanda is close to Magul-maha-vihāra above, and it too was a pre-Christian cave monastery. One inscription is dated in the reign of a king who was probably Dutthagāmani Abhaya (B.C. 161-137). 18

Gonagala and Pimburāmalgala are two adjacent hills in the Ruhuna National Park which in past time formed one monastery. Of the nine pre-Christian cave inscriptions, one records the gift to the Sangha by the Village Corporation of Maḍukaśali. 19

Ākāsa Cetiya, still known by the same name and the loftiest and most impressive rock in the *Ruhuṇa National Park*, is first mentioned in the reign of Kākavaṇṇa Tissa and again in connection with Vaṭṭa-gāmaṇi Abhaya's exile in Rohaṇa: here a sordid incident occurred which caused a temporary estrangement between the king and his ministers. The ruins of the Cetiya on the summit prove that there was a stairway, probably partly of wood, up to the top in pre-Christian times.²⁰

Koṭapabbata Vihāra, also called Koṭipabbata Mahāvihāra, Koṭagala, Koṭapavu, Koṭadora and Keṭapavu, was near Ākāsa Cetiya and not far from Cittalapabbata. In it was Nāgaleṇa. The ruins have not been identified. Near Koṭapabbata Vihāra was the village Kittigāma or Kätigama.²¹

Acchagalla Vihāra was near Ākāsa Cetiya and is identical with Accha Vihāra in Rohaṇa ascribed to Goṭhābhaya and Valasgalu

^{14.} M. 60. 61; Dhv. 30; Puj. 16; A.I.C. 23; C.J.S. (G) II. 17, 18, 25; A.S.C.A.R. 1951, 38.

^{15.} Puj. 16.

^{16.} M. 22. 23: 24. 9: 35. 81: 45. 59: 75. 137; E.M. 22. 133; M.T. 34, 457; Thv. 29; E.H.B. 117—119, 66; E.Z. IV. 217; U.C.R. VIII, No. 2, 116, 121-126: No. 4, 261: VII, No. 4, 242; J.R.A.S. (C.B.), New Series, II, 126ff.

^{17.} M. 55. 28, 29: 58. 18-20; A.S.C.A.R. 1928, 17; C.J.S. (G) II. 26; U.C.R., VIII, No. 2, 126: J.R.A.S. (C.B.). New Series, II, 126ff.

^{18.} A.S.C.A.R., 1935, 10; U.C.R., VII, 238, note 4; J.R.A.S. (C.B.), New Series, II, 126 ff.

^{19.} J.R.A.S. (C.B.), New Series, II, 137.

^{20.} Ibid., 138; M. 22. 25-41: 33. 67-72; A.S.C.A.R., 1934, para 76.

^{21.} Ibid., 139; M. 22. 25; 23. 55, 61; Puj. 29; Raj. 57; Thv. 134; E.H.B. 70, 119.

Vihāra ascribed to Kāvaṇtissa, both rulers in the 2nd century B.C. It may be the rock-group now known as *Moderagala* in the *Ruhuna National Park* where there are caves and pre-Christian inscriptions.²²

The ruins at Avagatiyāva, a rock-group about a mile from Ākāsa Cetiya, are named Atada Vihara in a 2nd century inscription in situ: to the monastery was assigned Gutaviya tank, now the breached Butava-väva.²³

The extensive ruins at Mandagala in the Yāla Strict Natural Reserve are those of an important monastery in ancient times. The inscriptions there range in date from 2nd B.C. to 4th A.C. and the placenames mentioned in them are:—(i) Muragama; (ii) Galedarapu; (iii) Dovațigama; and (iv) Abavelaka. The Mandavāpi or Pandavāpi Vihāra was founded by Mahācūļī Mahātissa (B.C. 77-63): if this is identical with the present Mandagala ruins, which are earlier in date, Mahācūļī Mahātissa was not the founder but a later benefactor of the Vihāra. The village Mandagāma was granted to the Sangha by Aggabodhi (circa 600), ruler of Rohaṇa.²⁴

The Yāla Strict Natural Reserve has not been fully explored for ancient sites, but extensive sites with caves and pre-Christian inscriptions are known to exist at Koṭṭadāmuhela and Dematagala.

A 3rd century inscription at *Deyinnēkema*, near *Katagamuva*, records the foundation of the vihara named Vayaliya-Tisapavata by Yatalaka Tisa Maharaja five centuries earlier and the grant to it of Kadacadaka tank.²⁵

A pillar inscription I mile north of *Kaṭagamwva* is an edict by Mānābharaṇa, ruler of Rohaṇa for some years prior to 1153, dated in the posthumous, 35th year of Jayabāhu (1149), granting fields at Mahatiradeṇiya and Kosombura to Taṭāmuhundgiri Vihāra.²⁶

Uccatalanka or Uccavālika Vihāra existed in the 1st century B.C. and was probably in the Mahāgāma area. Another pre-Christian Vihāra in this locality was Gāmantapabbhāra or Vāmantapabbhāra Vihāra.²⁷

Gāmeṇdavāla Mahāvihāra existed in the 1st century B.C. and was situated between *Kataragama* and *Situlpavuva*. Hankāna Vihāra of the same period was probably situated between *Talaguruhela* and *Situlpavuva*. Vadhatalanagara Vihāra was not far from *Situlpavuva* and existed in the 1st or 2nd century.²⁸

- 22. Ibid., 140; M. 33. 67; M.T. 302; Dhv. 83.
- 23. A.S.C.A.R., 1954, 57.
- 24. E.H.B. 74; App. IB; Dhv. 31; E.H.B. 122; M. 34.8, 93:45.4; E.M. 34.95.
 - 25. A.S.C.A.R., 1954, 37.
 - 26. E.Z. V. 146.
 - 27. E.H.B. 66, 68, 69, 116, 121.
 - 28. E.H.B. 66, 119, 120, 123, 124.

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Associated with the hill Uturuvaḍapavuva, where gold was found was the village Uttara, also called Uttaravaḍḍhamāna or Antaravaḍḍhamāna: near the village and not far from Mahāgāma was Ambariya Vihāra. Mahāpuṇṇagāma was near Mahāgāma.²⁹

Sakkharasobbha was a port, evidently close to Mahāgāma, where Iļanāga landed in the year 36.30

Anurārāma Vihāra, near and to north of Mahāgāma, was built by Vasabha (67-111) who assigned to it the village Heligāma where there was a Pariveṇa known as Helagam Pariveṇa. Bronze 'boats' for alms were placed at Anurārāma Vihāra: Vohārika Tissa (209-231) built the Uposatha House. Dappula, ruler of Rohaṇa (circa 659), repaired Anurārāma Pāsāda. Anuru-maha-pā in Mahagama is mentioned in the Sīgiri Graffiti.³¹

An inscription of Dappula IV (927) at *Detagamuva*, near *Kataragama*, grants privileges to Kapugam Pirivena which is described as situated to the north of the Mahaveher (Tissamahāvihāra) and on the south bank of the Kapikandur-Ho. This river is the Kappakandaranadī of the Pāli Chronicles and Paranavitana has established that it is the present *Mänik Ganga*. The village Kappakandaragāma, the home of the paladin, Bharana, also called Kapkanduru and Kappanduru, was doubtless named after the river and was situated on its banks.³²

The Uḍa-Tisa-piriveṇa, situated on the left bank of the Kirind-Ho (present Kirinda Oya), is mentioned in an inscription of Mahinda IV (956-972) at Mayilagastoṭa, 8 miles from Tissa. In the Mahāvainsa the river is called Karinda-nadi.³³

Forced to flee from Rājaraṭṭha by the Cōļa invaders, Mahinda V took refuge in Rohaṇa at a temporary capital which he established at Kappagallaka. In 1017 he and his family, together with the royal regalia and treasures, were captured by the Cōļas and he was sent as a prisoner to the Cōḷa Kingdom where he died 12 years later.³⁴

Valliyera Vihāra in Rohaņa existed in the reign of Vasabha (67-111) who built for its chief monk the Mahāvalligotta Vihāra. Presumably, the <u>Valliyera Vihāra</u> was enlarged and re-named Mahāvalligotta Vihāra: the <u>latter</u> name may be preserved in modern *Väligatta*.³⁵

- 29. E.H.B. 61, 117; Dhv. 41; SdhRv. 851.
- 30. M. 35. 28.
- 31. M. 35. 83 : 36. 30-37 : 45. 46 : 48. 25 ; M.T. 652, 10 ; Puj. 30 ; Raj. 57 ; Sig. Graff. I, App. C.
- 32. M. 23. 64: 24. 22; Puj. 24, 30; Thv. 134; E.Z. III, 223, 224; Sig. Graff. I, App. C.
 - 33. M. 32. 14; E.Z. II, 63.
 - 34. M. 55. II.
 - 35. M. 35. 82, 83; M.T. 652.

Kāvaṇtissa built Badagaldora Vihāra which may be modern Badagiriya. The place-names Badagiri and Badagiri both occur in the Sīgiri graffiti. The ruins at Badagiriya, about 7 miles north of Hambantoṭa, are ancient and include inscriptions of the 3rd to 6th centuries in one of which the ancient name of the Vihāra has been obliterated.³⁶

The foundation of Gōṭhapabbata Vihāra is ascribed to Goṭhābhaya, ruler of Rohaṇa early in the 2nd century B.C. In an epigraph of Gajabāhu I (114-136) at Goḍavāya Vihāra, near the mouth of the Valavē Ganga, the site is called Goḍapavata Vihara and the customs duties of the port of the same name are assigned to the Vihāra. In a later 6th century inscription the place is named Goḍava Vahera. The appearance of the little bay at Goḍavāya today does not suggest that it could have been more than a hazardous anchorage for an occasional sailing ship in times past, and the revenue lost by the religious benefaction was probably trifling.³⁷

Khaṇḍavagga sub-district was a rath century division extending eastward from the Valavē Ganga over the area a few miles inland from the coast. In this sub-district were:—(i) the village Bakagalla-Uddhavāpi, identified by Codrington as present Koggalla-Uḍaväva; (ii) Bilava(na) Vihara, the ancient name for the present Karambagala Vihāra, as given in an inscription in situ of the reign of Sirimeghavaṇṇa (301-328); Dhātusena (455-473) built (? restored) Bhillivāna Vihāra in Rohaṇa. The place Abadaka, the residence of the district chieftain, is mentioned in the inscription.³⁸

In the 11th and 12th centuries, perhaps earlier, the southern part of Rohaṇa was divided into two major territorial divisions, the dividing line being the Vana-nadī, previously called Mahā-nadī, the present $Valav\bar{e}~Ganga$. The area to east of the river, including $Lower~\bar{U}va$, was called Aṭṭhasahassa-raṭṭha or -desa, 'the district of 8,000 villages', and its capital was Uddhanadvāra or Udundora, present $Galab\bar{a}dda$, near $Moner\bar{a}gala$. ³⁹

Saṃghabhedakagāma was a place situated probably between Koggalla and Tissa.40

Sippatthalaka, used as a temporary seat of administration by Vijayabāhu I in the 11th century, was between Ambalantoṭa and $Kataragama.^{41}$

- 36. Dhv. 83; Sig. Graff. I, App. C.
- 37. Dhv. 31; C.J.S. (G) II. 197; J.R.A.S. (C.B.), New Series, V, 78.
- 38. M. 38. 49: 75. 119-125; A.I.C. 21 (a); E.Z. III. 179: IV. 224; U.C.R., VII, No. 4, 247.
 - 39. M. 51, 121:61.24:75.154, 157.
 - 40. M. 75. 125.
 - 41. M. 57. 70: 58. 7.

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Dappula of Rohana (circa 659) built a Vihāra near the tank Pāṇḍikkulama or Paḍikkulama. Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) restored Paṇḍukolamba tank, the breached reservoir north of *Ridiyā-gama* now known as *Pāṇḍikulama*.⁴²

At Veheragala, near Bōdagama, on the Tanamalvila-Hambēgamuva road, there are two inscriptions, one very fragmentary of the 2nd century, and the other of the 6th century. The latter mentions the village Rayadagama in Mayagaraya.⁴³

(B). Giruva Pattus

Giri-janapada, also called Girimandala, Girinil-danaviya and Giruvāhōbada, was a district which extended in pre-Christian times over, approximately, present Giruva Pattus, East and West. In Giri district were:—(i) the village Niṭṭhula-viṭṭhika, also called Niṭṭhula-cittaka and Niṭulviṭi, the home of the warrior, Goṭhaimbara: it may be present Neṭṭolpiṭiya, near Tangalla; and (ii) Kuṭumbiyangana village, also known as Kulumbiyangana, Kumbiyangana, Kuṭimbiya and Kelayangana, the birthplace of the warrior Velusumana.⁴⁴

The ancient name of *Mulgirigala Vihāra* is given in a 12th century inscription there as Muhundgiri Vihāra. Kāvaṇtissa is said to have built Samudda Vihāra and this may be identical with Muhundgiri because the inscribed caves there date from the 2nd century B.C. The Sinhalese Chronicles ascribe to Jetthatissa I (263-274) the building of Mulgiri Vihāra: the *Kaṭagamuva* inscription of Mānābharaṇa of the 12th century records a grant to Taļāmuhundgiri Vihāra and there were, apparently, two Vihāras named Muhundgiri, one of which was modern *Mulgirigala*. The Rājāvaliya wrongly equates Dakkhiṇagiri Vihāra, which was near Sīgiri, with *Mulgirigala Vihāra*.⁴⁵

On a rock cailed $V\bar{a}digala$, about $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Ranna towards Tangalla, there are two inscriptions of the 1st century and one of the 4th century. There was a thupa here in ancient times but all traces of it have nearly vanished owing to recent quarrying of the rock. The old name of the site as given in the inscriptions was Kamuhajivi Vihara: also mentioned in the inscriptions are (i) Samayutagama; (ii) Kalavahanakaja tank; and (iii) tracts of fields named Padala, Rihala, and Hamara. 46

Kahagal Vihāra near Ranna is named Kacagala Vihara in a 2nd century inscription there. This is identical with Kasāgalu Vihāra built (? restored) by Dappula of Rohaņa (circa 659) and Kāsagalla Vihāra restored by Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110).⁴⁷

- 42. M. 79. 82; Puj. 29; Raj. 57.
- 43. A.I.C. 76; C.J.S. (G), II. 24.
- 44. M. 23. 49, 68; $E.\dot{M}.$ 23. 79, 110; M.T. 452, 18: 454. 24; Thv. 133, 135; E.H.B. 121.
 - 45. Dhv. 83; Puj. 24; Raj. 44, 51; C.J.S. (G), II. 122.
 - 46. A.I.C. 69.
 - 47. M. 60. 61; Puj. 29; Raj. 57; C. J. S. (G), II. 120, 121.

Vigamuva Vihāra, also near Ranna, is called Vagoņu in a 5th century inscription in situ. In other inscriptions of the 3rd and 7th centuries the following place-names occur:—(i) Varaṇatoṭa; (ii) Abavika; and (iii) Aharavika.⁴⁸

The area to west of the Valavē Ganga was called Dvādasasahassa or Dolosdahas-raṭa, 'the district of 12,000 villages', and its capital was Mahānāgahula, called Mānāvuļu in Sinhalese literature, and identified by Paranavitana as present Rambhā Vihāra, about 8 miles from Ambalantoṭa on the road to Ämbili pitiya. Mahānāgahula was the scene of much activity during the campaigns of Vijayabāhu I, who made it his capital, and of Parakkamabāhu I in the 11th and 12th centuries. It was from Mahānāgahula that Vijayabāhu launched his decisive attack upon the Cōlas. Gajabāhu II resided there and Parakkamabāhu lived there as a youth with his uncle.49

Bodhivāla is modern Bōvala, 3 miles south-east of Kirama. 50

On the Hiraññamalaya or Suvaṇṇamalaya range of hills, identified by Codrington with present *Raṇṇalakanda*, north-west of *Kirama*, was the Remuṇa rock where Vijayabāhu fortified himself. Mahāpabbata was also a peak in this range. These hills were used not only as defensive fortifications but also to launch offensive forays and raids on the lowlands to the south.⁵¹

Tambalagāma, a stronghold and temporary residence of Vijayabāhu, was in the vicinity of $Tal\bar{a}va$, about 15 miles north-west of Ambalantota.

Nadībhaṇḍagāma has been identified by Codrington as $\bar{O}bada$, 5 miles north-west of $V\bar{\imath}rak\bar{a}tiya$. Parakkamabāhu's general attacked the strong fortification here from Mahāsenagāma and won a victory which opened the way to Mahānāgahula. There was an old saying, 'they looked for the tolls at Māsengamuva'. 53

Mālāvaratthalī was situated between Ranmalakanda and $M\bar{a}madola$: Codrington places it in the vicinity of $Tal\bar{a}va$. ⁵⁴

Sīmātālatthalī was situated between $\bar{O}bada$ and $\bar{U}rubokka$, and Codrington suggests that the name implied a boundary town, probably on the $Giruva\ Pattu$ boundary. ⁵⁵

The line dividing the wet and dry zones runs roughly from *Tangalla* to *Valasmulla*, the area to west being the wet zone. In early times, population decreased as the wet zone was approached.

CHAPTER VII

THE MĀTARA DISTRICT

The present *Mātara District* was a part of ancient Rohaṇa. The entirety of it is in the wet zone where paddy cultivation by irrigation is not feasible. The hinterland, comprising *Moravak Kōralē*, is mountainous. The coastal region may have been sparsely populated in early times, but the interior was not opened up and settled much before the 10th century. There is a marked absence of ancient monuments, so prolific in the dry zone, and this is good evidence of the paucity of settled population.

In his monograph entitled 'The Shrine of Upulvan at Devundara', Dr. Paranavitana has dealt exhaustively with the history, the architecture, the worship and the inscriptions at Devanagara, modern Devundara. According to the Culavamsa, Dappula, independent ruler of Rohana (circa 659), founded Khadirāli Vihāra. A oth century inscription at Devundara refers to the temple as Kihirali Pirivena (= P. Khadirāli Parivena) of Girivala: this, then, was its original name. The Sinhalese Chronicles ascribe the foundation of Devnuvara or Devunuvara Vihāra first to Dappula (Dāpulusen), then to Aggabodhi IV (667-683), and finally to Manavamma (684-718). Vikkamabāhu I (1029-1042) visited the town of Devanagara when he had completed his preparations to attack the Colas, who were then rulers of Ceylon, but he fell ill and died there. Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110) restored Devanagara Vihāra. During the 12th century civil war, Parakkamabāhu's troops fought an action at Devanagara. Nissanka Malla (1187-1196) records that he visited Devinuvara and had the temples there repaired. Parakkamabāhu II (1236-1271) visited the temple, worshipped the 'Lotus-headed God', and erected the Nandana Pāsāda: later, he restored the whole temple and celebrated an Āsālhī festival every year for the god. Parakkamabāhu IV (circa 1302) built at Devapura a long temple of two storeys with four pairs of gates for the Image of the recumbent Buddha: to the Image House he assigned the village of Ganthimana, present Gätamana. The general of Bhuvanekabāhu IV (1346-1353) built a 3-storeyed Image House for the standing Image of the Buddha. In the Galle trilingual slab inscription, the list of offerings made at Tenavarai (Devinuvara) on behalf of the Chinese Emperor, Yung-lo, (1410) is recorded in Chinese, Arabic and Tamil. In the 9th century inscription in which the shrine is named Kihiräli-pirivana of Giriyala, the following villages are declared dedicated to it:—(i) Salkeval; (ii) Māgula, which may be

1. A.S. Memoirs, Vol. VI, (1953).

^{48.} *C.J.S.* (G), II. 120.

^{49.} M. 61. 22, 24: 58. 39: 60. 90: 61. 23: 63. 4: 75. 19, 156, 160; Thv. 133, 135; A.S.C.A.R., 1955, 72.

^{50.} M. 57. 55.

^{51.} M. 57. 62: 75. 62, 158.

^{52.} M. 58. 10, 38.

^{53.} M. 75. 104, 109; Puj. 142.

^{54.} M. 75. 66-68, 157.

^{55.} M. 75. 101.

Māgallagoda, near Nāimana North; (iii) Udumaharoja; (iv) Mahavela; and (v) Paṇavara. The second inscription at the site is of Parakkamabāhu II and it mentions Teṇḍiratota, the name of the seaport at Devinuvara. The third inscription, of Parakkamabāhu VI (1410-1467) grants to the Vihāra:—(i) Nāymaṇai, modern Nāimana; (ii) Suṅgaṅgola modern Hungaṅgoda; (iii) Pagala-Karamullai, now Pahala Karamulla; and (iv) Vērdūvai, modern Vēradūva.² The fourth inscription of Vijayabāhu VI (1515) grants to the Kövil named Nagarīsa at Devinuvara fields at:—(i) Paravāsara, present Paravahara, and (ii) Pātēgama in Nāvaḍunna, present Pātēgama and Nāoiunna.³

The Kustarājagala at Väligama is thus described by Dr. Paranavitana:—"It is of colossal size and represents a figure in kingly attire, but the Dhyāni Buddha Amitābha on the head-dress and the lotus held in the hand indicate that it depicts Avalokitesvara as has already been suggested by Dr. Nell. There is a local tradition that this figure represents a foreign king who left his native country because he suffered from leprosy, landed at Väligama and was cured by a local physician. This tradition seems to preserve in a distorted way some facts regarding the Bodhisattva Avalokita. One aspect of this Bodhisattva, that known as Simhanāda Lokeśvara, is considered by the Mahāyānists to be the curer of all diseases and is particularly invoked to cure leprosy. It is stated that 'the first success of Lamaism among the Mongols was due to the cure of a leprous king by means of the Simhanāda Sādhana'. But the iconographical representation of this form of Avalokita, as found in northern Buddhist countries, differs from that of the Väligama figure. It may be possible that the particularisation of this aspect of Avalokita's beneficient influence with a distinct iconographical form was of later date than this sculpture and that the cure of leprosy was originally attributed to this Bodhisattva in a more general form. There is another tradition prevailing among the educated Buddhists that this figure is that of the god Natha The word Natha means 'Lord' and is only a shortened form of the fuller epithet 'Lokeśvara Nātha'. It is hardly necessary to mention that the epithet Lokeśvara is one of the most familiar of the many names of Avalokitesvara and was the one by which he was best known in Cambodia and Java. The modern belief that Avalokita of Väligama is Nātha provides further circumstantial evidence of the identity of the two".4

Parakkamabāhu's troops from $Pasdun \, K\bar{o}ral\bar{e}$ advanced down the coast to attack the rebels in Rohaṇa and reached Mahāvālukagāma or Vālukagāma, nuodern $V\ddot{a}ligama$. This place was then a seaport of some importance and the Chronicle says that there were many merchants

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there 'to whom their life and their money were dear'. Parakkama-bāhu's general offered pardon and protection to all those who came over to his side, and the merchants, together with many inhabitants of the area, surrendered, so that Väligama was captured without much fighting. A Vihāra was built at Valliggāma (Väligama) in the reign of Queen Kalyānavatī (1202-1208). Parakkamabāhu IV (1303-1330) built at Valligāma Vihāra a long pāsāda of two storeys named Parakkamabāhu Pāsādā, and granted it the village of Sāligiri, present Älgiriya, 6 miles from Väligama.⁵

Continuing their advance from Väligama, Parakkamabāhu's troops broke up into columns which fought actions at Kammaragāma (Kamburugamuva), Mahāpanālagāma (Pälāna), Mānakapiṭṭhi, Nīlavālatittha (Mātara) and Devanagara (Devundara), and converged on Kadalīpatta in order to cross the Nilvala Ganga in force. The rebel forces took their stand at Mahākhetta to oppose the crossing, but Parakkamabahu's forces broke through and crossed to the opposite bank at Dīghāli. Codrington suggests that Mahākhetta was Pāraduva, near Akurässa, where there is an extensive stretch of fields on one side of the river and a long channel (dik-äla) on the other.

Conjointly with the attack down the coast, Parakkamabāhu sent strong forces from *Denavaka* and *Navadun Kōralē* to advance into *Moravak Kōralē* and descend the hills into *Giruva Pattu*. These forces captured rebel strongholds at Madhutthala, present *Mīgoda* near and to south-east of *Ūrubokka* (Codrington), and at Sūkarāli-Bheripāsāṇa, present *Ūrubokka* and *Beralapaṇātara* (Codrington). A Vihāra named Bheripāsāṇa existed in early times.

The Panākaduva Copper Plate of Vijayabāhu I's 27th year (1082/83) is a grant of privileges to Ruhuņu-dadanāyaka-Sitnarubim-Budalnāvan (Lord Budal of Sitnarubim, Dandanāyaka of Ruhuņa). Sitnaru-bim, it would appear, was the name of the territorial division around modern Panākaduva in Moravak Kōralē.8

^{2.} All these identifications are by Paranavitana.

^{3.} M. 45. 59: 56. 6: 60. 59: 75. 47: 83. 49-51: 85. 85: 90. 94, 95; Pui. 29 30; Raj. 57; A.S.M., VI. 62, 69, 74, 77; E.Z. I. 135: II. 119, 141, 177: III. 331,

^{4. &#}x27;Mahāyānism in Ceylon', C.J.S. (G) II. 49, 50, 53.

^{5.} M. 75. 36-46: 80. 38: 90. 96, 97.

^{6.} M. 72. 63: 75. 47-61.

^{7.} M. 75. 98, 147; E.H.B. 120.

^{8.} E.Z. V, 1 ff.

CHAPTER VIII

THE GALLE DISTRICT

The Galle District, like the Mātara District, was a part of Rohana and was situated in the wet zone. It had no irrigation works and its settled population in ancient times was scanty. The earliest ancient monument which has survived is an inscribed pillar of the 10th century. The terrain begins to be hilly a few miles from the coast, and the hinterland is mountainous.

Bhīmatittha or Bentota, modern Bentota, was in Pañcavojana (Pasdun Kōralē) in the 12th and 13th centuries. In an inscription of Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) at Galpāta Vihāra, now called Galapāta Vihāra, at Bentota, the following places are named as assigned to the Vihāra:—(i) Siyambalāpaya, in which was Sumbulupat-halla which had been rendered suitable for cultivation; (ii) Tingavatu, present Timbavatuva or Timbotuva (Bell) in Bemtota Tāvalama, bounded on the east by the pond of kumbuk trees, on the south by the lagoon. and on the north by the street; (iii) Tiratenayavatta, modern Tiritenayavatta (Bell); (iv) Isamvitivatta; (v) Beravagama, in which was Panäspolvatta; (vi) Kasagalugoda, present Kasagaltota (Paranavitana); (vii) the islands Dharmmanandana and Manonandana in the lagoon; (viii) Bolutudāva, present Boltudāva (Bell); and (ix) Nissamkagala, present Nissangala (Bell), in Beravagoda, bounded on the east by the lagoon. on the south by the kon tree, on the west by Aramboda of Kakuluvagala, present Käkulāgala (Paranavitana), and on the north by Ilubässa in Kitkevuva. Parakkamabahu II (1236-1271) celebrated a festival for the Tooth Relic of Mahāthera Mahākassapa which was enshrined at Bhīmatittha (Galapāta) Vihāra.1

Across the Salgamu-hoya, present Hikkaduva Ganga, at Sālaggāma. the Minister of Parakkamabāhu II (1236-1271) built a bridge 40 staves (300 feet) long: Sālaggāma was on the river bank and the village was later assigned to Titthagama Vihara, present Totagamuva Vihara. Vijayabāhu IV (1271-1273) built a pāsāda in Titthagāma Vihāra. A 10th century inscription on a stone pillar at this temple mentions the place Mahabälagam.²

At the Sālapādapa swamp or Salgas-hoya the same Minister of Parakkamabāhu II built a bridge of 100 cubits. He also cleared the Mahālabujagaccha or Mahadelgas forest, founded there a village which was named after the forest, planted a large grove of jak trees, and erected an Image House and a Cetiva.3

Gimhatittha and Galu-nadī which figure in the civil war during the reign of Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) are modern Gintota and the Gin Ganga respectively (Geiger).4

- M. 85. 16, 17, 81; Puj. 49; E.Z. IV. 208.
 M. 86. 41; Puj. 49; C.J.S. (G) II. 184, 185, 198.
- 3. M. 86. 42, 49-54; Puj. 49.
- 4. M. 75. 23, 24.

CHAPTER IX

THE MANNAR DISTRICT

The Mannar District in the north-west of Cevlon is the most arid region in the Island: it has a low rainfall during the north east monsoon and a prolonged and acute period of drought from May to September every year. Its coast is the nearest part of Ceylon to Southern India: therefore, this maritime area became, by proximity to the Indian mainland, not only the commercial coast for shipping and external trade, but also, the vulnerable invasion coast upon which the dominant South Indian power for the time being (Pāndya or Cōla) launched, at various times, its ravaging sea-borne attacks. No less important than the proximity to India in promoting foreign trade in this region was the richness of the famed Pearl Banks, known from great antiquity, which lay off the north-west coast immediately to south of the island of Mannar; chanks, in which too there was a considerable trade, were abundant in the waters both north and south of Mannar island: and, in the forests of the immediate hinterland, were many elephants, also an important export product from early times.

The District is almost uniformly flat and the main river which flows through it is the Malvatta Oya, known as the Aruvi Āru in its lower course. The tanks are shallow with comparatively low bunds. There are several lagoons with large stretches of infertile, open land around them.

The antiquity of the Mannar District goes back beyond the beginnings of Ceylon history to the legends and traditions associated with the original arrival of the Northern Indians who founded the first civilised settlements in the Island. In the legend of Vijava it is related that he and his men sailed down the west coast of India from Suppāraka (now Sopāra, north of Bombay) and landed in I ankā at Tambapanni: because their hands were stained by the copper-coloured earth when they threw themselves ashore they called their landing-place. as well as the township close by which they later established, and the whole Island, Tambapanni. The Dipavamsa, the oldest of the Ceylon Chronicles, states that Tambapanni was 'on the most lovely south bank of the river'. The Rajavaliya, the latest and least reliable of the Sinhalese Chronicles, alone states that Vijaya's ships made for land in the direction of Ruhuna (misinterpreting the word 'south') and when they sighted Sumanakūta (Adam's Peak) they steered their ships for the shore and landed. The river referred to in the Dipavainsa is undoubtedly the Kadamba-nadi (present Malvatta Ova or Aruvi Āru). The story of Vijaya is one which, in its literal form, cannot be credited.

but there is nothing in the story to create a reasonable doubt about the factual existence of a place named Tambapanni. It is described as one of the earliest ports and the first settlement of the Indo-Aryan immigrants, and there is every reason to suppose that it still existed at the time the Chronicles were compiled. Its situation, according to the Dipavamsa, was near the mouth and on the south bank of the Aruvi Āru, that is, assuming the river has not changed its course, in the vicinity of modern Ärippu. This is supported by other evidence. A voyage down the west coast of India would have rendered a landing in Ceylon to north of the shoals and sandbanks now known as Adam's Bridge a perilous undertaking because of the hazards of the passage through either the Pāmben or the Mannār channels: safer navigation through these straits was probably discovered later, after they had become familiar to mariners. The Pandyan princess who came to Ceylon to be Vijaya's queen is said to have landed at Mahātittha (Māntai) and then proceeded to Tambapanni: here again was an avoidance of the Adam's Bridge passages and the employment of a safer route direct from the Pandyan coast to a port in Ceylon to north of Adam's Bridge. Vijava lived 38 years at Tambapanni and every year he sent the Pandyan king a present of pearls: we may infer, therefore, that Tambapanni was in the vicinity of the Pearl Banks. The next capital after Tambapanni was Upatissagāma, and after that the royal city was permanently established at Anuradhapura, so that the movement inland was up the valley of the Malvattu Oya, from Tambapanni to Anuradhapura. The ruins of Tambapanni have not vet been discovered, and if any remains exist they probably lie not far from the sea in the neighbourhood of Arippu.1

Equally ancient, but soon attaining far greater importance than Tambapanni, was the port of Mahātittha, modern Māntai, on the main land opposite the town of Mannar, a seaport renowned throughout the east in ancient and medieval times. In Sinhalese literature and inscriptions it is called variantly Mahavoti, Mahaputu, Mahavutu, Mavatutota, Mahapatana and Mātota, and in Tamil, Mātōttam. It is now a truly buried city, its ruins lying in the great mound at Māntai from which rises the Hindu temple of Tirukeśvaram. Like Anurādhapura and Polonnaruva, Mahātitha was a walled city. The main export products of Ceylon, pearls, precious stones, cinnamon, spices and elephants, passed out of the country chiefly through this famous harbour. Ptolemy's exceptional account of Ceylon, written in the middle of the 2nd century, names it Modouttou. In the 6th century Ceylon attained great commercial importance as the centre and entrepot of sea trade in the Indian Ocean: Persian and Axumite ships and the sailors of Adulis from the West, the shipping of India, and the 76 JOURNAL, R.A.S. (CEYLON) New Series, Vol. VI, Special Number

mariners and merchants of China and other far-Eastern countries, met in the harbour of Mahātittha.²

There is evidence of strong Hindu influence at Mahātittha. Dr. Paranavitana has referred to the statement in the Dathavamsa that there was a Hindu shrine at Mahātittha in the reign of Sirimeghavanna (301-328), and to the Tevaram hymns in which the Tamil saint. Nānasambandar, sings the praises of Siva who had his abode there: he alludes also to a common imprecation in Sinhalese inscriptions of the 9th and 10th centuries which reads, 'may he who violates this edict incur the sins of a killer of cows at Mahavutu'. All this emphasises the Hindu sanctity of the place and the reverence paid to it by Sinhalese Buddhists. The population of Mahātittha would have included a large number of foreign merchants, most of whom must have been Indian: hence the pre-dominance of the Hindu element among the non-Buddhist residents and floating population. Although commerce and trade were largely in foreign hands, the Sinhalese inscriptions speak of the Sinhalese king's officers by whom the place was administered: the customs dues would have yielded a considerable revenue and, no doubt, adequate administrative machinery was set up to secure its collection on the king's behalf.3

The Chronicles mention Mahātittha mainly in connection with invasions: as the key port it naturally had to be captured first to enable it to be used as the main base for supplying the invading troops and maintaining communications with their homeland. The first reference, as already stated, is to the landing of the Pandvan princess in the reign of Vijaya, traditionally in the 6th century B.C. The Rāiāvaliva, which is frequently inaccurate, states that the Cola conqueror. Elara, early in the 2nd century B.C., landed with his army at Mahavatutota which it erroneously locates at the mouth of the Mahaväli Ganga. but in a later passage it equates the place correctly with Mahātittha. The Cola reinforcements which arrived in Ceylon in B.C. 161 under the general Bhailuka to give aid to Elara, landed at Mahatittha and pushed rapidly forward to Anuradhapura, but their intervention was too late as Elāra had already been slain in battle. Ilanāga (33-43), deprived of his throne by the Lambakannas, embarked at Mahatittha on his flight to the Kerala kingdom where he stayed 3 years before he was able to return and regain the sovereignity. Though the Chronicle does not expressly say so, it is very probable that the Sinhalese prince. Mānavamma, who made two invasions of Ceylon in Pallava ships and with Pallava armies provided by the Pallava kings, Naraśimhavarman I and II, landed each time at Mahātittha: his first attempt to secure the thone of Ceylon had to be abandoned after he had captured Anuradhapura and victory was in sight because the Pallava troops were recalled to their own country owing to the serious illness of their

^{1.} M. 6. 47: 7. 40, 41, 58, 73, 74: 8. 4: 11. 20-26, 38, 39: 19. 4-23; D. 9. 30-44, as corrected at C.J.S. (G) I. 11, 12; Puj. 1; Raj. 16.

^{2.} See Bibliography at end of Chapter I.

^{3.} E.Z. I. 245: II. 235: III. 133, 135, 225.

king, but the second invasion was entirely successful and Manayamma

became king of Ceylon in 684. From about the year 775, the power of the Pandyan kingdom continued to expand rapidly, and an invasion of Ceylon appears to have been apprehended in the reign of Aggabodhi VII (772-777) because the prince Mahinda was stationed at Mahātittha by the king's orders. The invasion actually came in the reign of Sena I (833-853), and the Pandyans, after landing presumably at Mahatittha and other northern ports, first laid waste the northern province (Uttararattha), being joined by many Damilas who were resident in various places in that region: it is specifically stated that this local reinforcement gave substantial aid to the invaders. The Sinhalese army suffered a crushing defeat and the king abandoned Anuradhapura and fled inland. Anuradhapura was sacked, and Sena I was compelled to make a humiliating capitulation, paying a heavy tribute and indemnity, in addition to surrendering the entire royal regalia and treasure, to regain the throne. In the year 862 (the 9th year of Sena II of Ceylon), the Pandyan prince, Varaguna, who had been ill-treated by his father, king Śrīmāra Śrīvallabha (the monarch who had invaded and subjugated Ceylon in the reign of Sena I), came to Ceylon and invoked the armed assistance of the Sinhalese king to secure the Pāṇdyan throne. At this time the Pāṇdyans were under attack by the Pallavas and the moment was favourable for a Sinhalese counterinvasion to erase the disgrace of the earlier defeat and to recover the royal regalia. Sena II therefore assembled a large expeditionary force at Mahātittha for the invasion of Pāndya and personally supervised its embarkation. The expedition gained complete success: the Pāndyan army was defeated and the Pandyan king, though he escaped from the battlefield, died of his wounds: Madhura was sacked, the Sinhalese regalia and treasures recovered and Varaguna II consecrated as king of Pāndya. The victorious Sinhalese army returned to Mahātittha and were received with honour by their king who had remained at the port while his troops were absent abroad. The Cola power was now gaining the ascendancy in South India and in 015 inflicted a major defeat on the Pandyan army. The Pandyan king sent urgent messages and gifts to the Sinhalese king (Kassapa V, 914-923),

requesting military aid in his desperate struggle with the Colas. A

Sinhalese army embarked at Mahātittha and landed in Pāndyan

territory: in the decisive battle of Vellur which followed, the combined

Pāndyan and Sinhalese armies were defeated by the Colas after a long

and severe struggle. The Cūlavamsa states that the Sinhalese king

recalled his army to its own country because there was an outbreak of

plague among the troops, but the defeat at Vellur was the more probable

reason for their withdrawal. In the reign of Udaya III (935-938) the

Pāndyan king, Rājasimha, abandoned his kingdom to the Colas, took

ship and landed at Mahātittha and sought the protection of the Sinhalese monarch. An attempt to organise an expeditionary

force in his support failed because the Sinhalese nobility and generals were opposed to such an enterprise, and the Pāṇdyan ruler left Ceylon

for the Kerala kingdom, leaving his diadem and regalia in the custody of the Sinhalese king. In 946 or 947, Parāntaka I, the Cōla king, demanded of the Sinhalese king, Udaya IV, the surrender of the Pāṇḍyan regalia, and receiving a refusal, invaded Ceylon and defeated the Sinhalese army. Udaya IV took refuge in Rohaṇa with the Pāṇḍyan regalia but the Cōla forces made no determined effort to seek him there and returned to South India.⁴

In 993 the great Cola king, Rajaraja I, conquered and occupied Rajarattha, that is, all of the northern half of Ceylon. Chaotic conditions in the Island facilitated this conquest. Rajarattha became a province of the Cola Empire and the Cola king's Viceroy established his seat at Polonnaruva. Rajarattha itself and important places were given Cola names. A Cola officer named Tali Kumaran built a temple called Rājarājēśvara at Mātōttam (Mahātittha) which was renamed Rājarājapura. In 1027, Rājēndra I, the son and successor of Rājarāja I, completed the conquest of Ceylon by subjugating Rohana: the Sinhalese king (Mahinda V) and his family who had taken refuge in that principality were taken prisoner and sent to the Cola country, and all the royal regalia and treasures were captured. It was not until 1055/56, when Vijayabāhu I assumed the formal rulership of Rohana, that resolute resistance to Cola rule began to be organised in Rohana. In 1065 the preparations for war being made by the forces of liberation had reached an advanced stage and a premature revolt broke out in Rajarattha: the Cola king despatched a powerful reinforcement which landed at Mahātittha and proceeded to suppress the rebellion with savage ferocity. In the following year Vijayabāhu won a great victory over the Cola general in Ceylon, pursued the fleeing Cola army and captured Polonnaruva. The Cola monarch organised with great speed the embarkation of strong forces for Ceylon to aid his viceroy: they landed at Mahātittha and, while advancing to Anurādhapura, were intercepted by the Sinhalese army upon whom they inflicted a paralysing defeat. In 1070, after Cola rule over Ceylon had lasted 77 years, Vijayabāhu delivered the two-pronged attack which, at long last, brought deliverance and freedom once more to the Sinhalese. One column advanced through the Kurunāgala and Anuradhapura districts with Mahatittha as its objective, while the other column moved up the east coast and turned inland to lay siege to the Cola seat of government at Polonnaruva. The western column captured Mahātittha, thus severing the communications of the Colas with their homeland, depriving them of their main base, and cutting off the escape of the main body of the Cola army at Polonnaruva. Polonnaruva fell, no aid came from South India and the Cola forces were annihilated. In ro85 Vijayabāhu I despatched two divisions, one to Mahātittha and the other to another northern port, to embark

^{4.} M. 25. 79: 35. 25: 48. 81: 50. 12-43: 51. 27-47: 53. 5-9, 40-47; Raj. 25, 42; E.Z. V. 103-107; 'A History of South India' by K. A. Nilakanta Sastri, 151, 154; 'The Cōlas' by K. A. Nilakanta Sastri, 120-123.

on a punitive expedition against the Cōlas, but the Velakkāra division of the army, largely Cōlas and other South Indians, revolted because they were unwilling to participate in operations against their own countrymen, and the expedition had to be called off. In 1100/01 there appears to have been a threat of a Cōla invasion because Vijayabāhu I marched with his army to the seaport (presumably Mahātittha) and stayed there some time awaiting the Cōla landing: but no attack materialised.⁵

About IIII/I2, Vīradeva, described as 'a warrior, lord of the Ariya country and sole sovereign of Palandīpa', landed with an invading army at Mahātittha. Vikkamabāhu, ruler of Rājaraṭṭha, advanced to Mannāra (Mannār) to fight him but was defeated: Vīradeva pursued the retreating Sinhalese forces beyond Polonnaruva, but was there trapped into fighting in a swampy wilderness, defeated and slain.

In 1160, the 16th year of Parakkamabāhu I, a revolt which broke out in the district around Mahātittha was suppressed by military action: the causes of disaffection which gave rise to the revolt are not known. In the same year, Parakkamabāhu's army, commanded by the Senāpati Lankāpura, embarked at Mahātittha on its invasion of Pāndva. reached the Pāṇḍyan coast in 24 hours, and landed at the roadstead Taladilla. A Cola inscription of the year 1178 states that news was received in the Cola kingdom that Parakkamabahu I was building ships and assembling troops at Mātōtṭam (Mahātittha) and other ports in Ceylon in order to make a fresh invasion of the Cola country and that, to counteract this, the Cola king organised an expedition, placing at its head prince Śrivallabha of Ceylon (a nephew of Parakkamabāhu I), which landed in Ceylon, captured and destroyed several places, including Mātōttam, and returned to the Cola kingdom with much booty. Nissanka Malla (1187-1196) built an Alms Hall at Mahaputupa (Mahātittha). Between 1188 and 1200 the Colas landed on two occasions at Mavatu (Mahätittha) and penetrated as far as Anurādhapura before they were expelled. In 1268, Candabhānu and his Jāvakas made a second incursion upon Ceylon, landed at Mahātittha and occupied the northern plain: the invaders were defeated at Subhagiri (Yāpahuva). For about 20 years from 1283 Ceylon formed a part of the Pandyan Empire and once again Mahatittha would have become the invasion base of the conquerors. There is no doubt that there were landings by invaders at Mahātittha, other than those recounted above, which have gone unrecorded in the Chronicles and inscriptions.7

Apart from the foreign, commercial colony at Mahātittha, the South Indian element there and in the surrounding countryside must have, from time to time, increased considerably in numbers in consequence of the port being repeatedly used as an invasion base, particularly during the prolonged Cōla conquest in the 11th century and the Pāṇḍyan conquest in the 13th century. The late H. W. Codrington wrote:—'There was a steady stream of immigration from South India through the port of Mahātittha, with the result that the neighbouring country became entirely Tamil. It is noteworthy that, while many Sinhalese place-names remain more or less disguised in the Jaffna peninsula and in the Eastern Province, now Tamil, this is not the case in the country behind Mannār; there these names are purely Tamil'.8

Kohāla tank, also called Kehāla and Kehāļa, near Mahātittha, was constructed by Vasabha (67-111): it is not now identifiable.9

Pācīnadīpa was an island northward of Mahātittha to which king Saṃghatissa (243-247) used to resort to eat jambu (S. Mādan) fruits. Vexed by these visits, the people of the island poisoned the fruits and the king died there after eating the poisoned fruit. The name ('east island') indicates that it was the most easterly of two or more islands and it may be present *Iranaitīvu South*. ¹⁰

An inscription of Kassapa V (914-923) at Māntai records a grant made to the Bahadurasen Meditation Hall in the Mahāvihāra at Anurādhapura of the three following villages, all situated in the Kuḍakadavukā division of Uturukarā (the northern province):— (i) Pepodatuḍa; (ii) Kumbalhala; and (iii) Tumpokoṇ. Among the immunities granted to these three villages, it is stated that the officers in charge of Mahapuṭu (Mahātittha) and those who reside at the following vihāras shall not enter:—(I) Nā-vehera: there are literary references to a Nāga or Nāgamahā Vihāra in the north; and (ii) Rakavehera: Moggallāna III (614-619) built a Cetiva temple in Rakkha Vihāra and Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110) restored Rakkhacetiyapabbata Vihāra. Another inscription of Kassapa V refers to the place Samadātiya in Mahavoṭi (Mahātittha) and to immunities granted to the village Sennarugama. The 4 villages and the 2 Vihāras inentioned in these two inscriptions were in the vicinity of Mahātittha.¹¹

The ancient northern province, which included the present *Mannār* district, was called Uttararaṭṭha or Uttarapassa or Uttaradesa in the Pāli Chronicles, the Sinhalese equivalents in medieval

^{5.} M. Caps. 55 to 60; 'The Colas' by K. A. Nilakanta Sastri, 168, 169, 172, 173, 183, 186, 191.

^{6.} M. 61. 36-46.

^{7.} M. 76. 7, 85: 88. 63: 90. 1-109; E.Z. II. 78; J.R.A.S. (C.B.) XXXI, 385; 'The Cōlas', 366-372, 378, 379; 'A History of South India', 206-208.

^{8.} Unpublished.

^{9.} M. 35. 94; D. 22. 7-11; M.T. 653, 27.

^{10.} M. 36. 70-71; M.T. 653. 27.

^{11.} M. 44. 51: 60. 58; Rsv. 167; E.Z. III. 105: IV. 252.

inscriptions being Utarapasa, Uturpasa and Uturukarā (the northern coast). An inscription of Kassapa IV (898-914) mentions the village Gaṇagami, situated in Valviț in Uturpasa. 12

Mahapaṭan-jū, mentioned in the Sīgiri Graffiti, means the island of *Mannār*. Mannāra or Maṇṇāram (present *Mannār*) was a village near Mahātittha and Tamil invaders held sway there in the reign of Parakkamabāhu II (1236-1271).¹³

Mānāmatta, also called Mānāmatu and Mānavatu, was the name of a tank and a district. The construction of the tank is ascribed to Dhātusena (455-473). Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) restored Mahānāmamatthaka tank. In the 13th century Tamil invaders occupied this district. Mānāmatta tank was probably present Giant's Tank. 14

An inscription of Mahinda IV (956-972) grants to Issarasamaṇa Vihāra at Anurādhapura fields at Pahaṇgama. Pāṇagamu or Pāsāṇagāma tank was built by Dhātusena (455-473) and restored by Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186): this is the tank now known as Pānankāmam in Māntai Division. 15

The Mannār coast opposite the Pearl Banks was called Muttākara: here Parakkamabāhu's forces fought two naval actions and brought Uttararaṭṭha (the northern province) under subjection. To retain his hold on this region Parakkamabāhu had a fortress built at the place Pilavasu. 16

Madhupādapatittha or Mīpātoṭa was a landing place occupied by Tamil invaders in the 13th century: the name may be preserved in modern *Illupakaḍavai*. Other landing places on the north-west or north coast whose location is uncertain were:—(i) Mattikāvāṭatittha; and (ii) Pulacceri or Pulaiccēri.¹⁷

There are four or five references in the inscriptions of the 1st to 3rd centuries to the place Magaṇa-nakara, which is identical with Ptolemy's Margana (south of his Modouttou, which is Mahātittha) and with Magaṇava and Maguṇ of the later Sīgiri Graffiti. Maguṇadanavva was west of Anurādhapura. From Ptolemy's map and the inscription of Kaniṭṭha Tissa (167-186) at Occāpu Kallu in Vilpattu it is clear that Magaṇa was on the west coast in the neighbourhood of

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the mouth of the $M\bar{o}deragam$ $\bar{A}ru$: and, in all probability, the buried town, whose surface remains are still clearly visible at Mullikulam, on the north bank and at the mouth of the $M\bar{o}deragam$ $\bar{A}ru$, was the ancient Magaṇa. The Cudataka tank was in Vevalamitiya in Magaṇanakara. Near Maguṇa was the fishing village Mahadälgama. ¹⁸

A third buried town exists in the *Mannār* district on *Mannār* island on the seashore about half way between *Pēsālai* and *Talaimannār*: there are mounds and surface remains extending a little inland from the shore, but part of the town appears to have been submerged by the sea. Nothing is known about the history of this ancient site.

Some stone pillars mark the site of a medieval shrine at Komputūkki, between Vidattaltīvu and Illupakaḍavai.

At the rock-outcrop known as $T\bar{o}nikallu$, 6 miles from Periyakun-cikulam, off the $\bar{A}kattimurippu$ road, there are two mutilated inscriptions of the 2nd century in which references to grants of fields and of money can be read: this was an ancient monastery.

^{12.} M. 35. 59 : 47. 3 : 48. 83, 95, 112, 155 : 50. 14 : 70. 63 ; E.Z. I. 246 : III. 105, 276 ; Sig. Graff. I, App. C.

^{13.} Sig. Graff. I, App. C; M. 61. 39: 83. 16; Puj. 42; N.S. 23.

^{14.} M. 79. 35: 83. 16; Puj. 27, 42; N.S. 23.

^{15.} E.Z. I. 39; Puj. 27; M. 79. 36.

^{16.} M. 70. 63, 93.

^{17.} M. 60. 34: 83. 17; N.S. 23; Puj. 42.

^{18.} J.R.A.S. (C.B.) No. 73, 55; A.I.C. 20; Codrington, Coins, 193; Dakkhina Vihāra tablets; Sig. Graff. I. App. C.

CHAPTER X

THE JAFFNA DISTRICT

The Jaffna district comprises the peninsula and the mainland, separated from each other by the Elephant Pass lagoon. Lying off the west coast of the peninsula are several islands. The whole is a flat, semi-arid region: there are no rivers of any size and none of them is perennial. Irrigation works are few and generally of small size, although Iranaimadu is a large tank.

Nāgadīpa, the Jaffna peninsula, is first mentioned in connection with the story of the Buddha's visits to Ceylon. The inhabitants are named Nāgas and the ruling family is said to have been related to the ruling Nāga family at Kalyāṇī (Kälaniva). The Buddha is said to have consecrated a site for worship and to have planted on it a Rājāyatana (Kiripaļu) tree. Bhātikatissa (143-167) built the Paļu-dā-gē at the foot of the Kiripaļu tree in Nāgadīpa: the Paļu-dā-gē and the Rājāyatanadhātu Vihāra are one and the same. Aggabodhi II (571-604) presented the Uṇṇalomaghara dwelling to the Rājāyatanadhātu Vihāra, as well as an umbrella for the Āmala Cetiva.¹

Jambukola was the port which the envoys of Devanampiya Tissa to the Mauryan Emperor, Asoka, set sail from as well as returned to in the year B.C. 247. (They took II days to reach Iamalitti (Tāmluk) at the mouth of the Ganges, and I2 days for the return voyage. Fa-Hsien (4II-4I3) also embarked at Tāmluk for Geylon and his voyage took I4 days). The landing of the Bodhi Tree in B.C. 246 took place at Jambukola, which Codrington identifies as modern Sambilturai, near Kankēsanturai. On the spot where king Devānampiya Tissa awaited the coming ashore of the Bodhi Tree, the Samudda Panasālā was built. A sapling of the tree was planted at Jambukola in the Jambukola Vihāra built by the king. One of the monasteries, if not the whole Jambukola Vihāra, was called Vālikā Vihāra. Vijayabāhu I (1055-IIIO) restored Jambukola Vihāra.

Devānampiya Tissa built Tissamahāvihāra in Nāgadīpa, at or very close to Jambukola. Kanittha Tissa (167-186) repaired its Cetiyaghara or Vata-dā-gē, and Vohārika Tissa (200-231) effected improvements to the Vihāra.³

- 1. M. 1. 44-70: 42. 62; Puj. 32; Raj. 49.
- 2. M. 11. 23, 28:19. 23-26, 60: 20. 25:60. 60; E.H.B. 112; Short History.
- 3. M. 20, 25; 36, 9, 36.

14.

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Pācīnārāma Vihāra, in or just outside Jambukola, was also built by Devānampiya Tissa.⁴

An inscription on gold plate found at Vallipuram, near Point Pedro, is dated in the reign of Vasabha (67-III) and records that Piyaguka Tisa built a vihara at Badakara (presumably, present Vallipuram), while the Minister, Isigiraya, was governor of Nakadiva (Nāgadīpa). Piyaguka, which is identical with Piyangudīpa or Puvangudiva where 12,000 monks are said to have resided, is modern Pungudutīvu.⁵

Near Nāgadīpa was the island Ahidīpa whose name was later changed to Karadīpa, present Kayts.⁶

Mangaṇa Vihāra was in the north and it is stated that there were 60,000 monks there, an obviously impossible figure. Dhātusena (455-473) restored the Vihāra. In association with Mangaṇa Vihāra is mentioned Kelāsa or Kolāsa Vihāra.

King Mahallaka Nāga founded Sālipabbata Vihāra in Nāgadīpa.8

Ūrātoṭa (modern Kayts) in mentioned in the Rājāvaliya as early as the reign of Paṇḍuvāsudeva in the 5th century B.C. The first reliable reference, however, is to the landing of a Vallabha expeditionary force at this port, also called Sūkaratittha and Hūrātoṭa, in the reign of Mahinda IV (956-972): the 'Vallabha' was Kṛṣṇa III, the Rāṣṭrakūṭa king, who claims in an inscription that he extorted tribute from several kings, including the king of Ceylon. A Cōḷa inscription of the 8th year of Rājādhirāja II mentions the preparations made at.Ūratturai and other ports in North Ceylon by Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) to make a second invasion of South India and the counter-measures taken to thwart the Sinhalese king's plans. In the 13th century, Sūkaratittha was under occupation by invaders.

Bhallatittha was a port in the north: so was Deberapatan or Deberapatun. The Cōla inscription mentioned in the preceding paragraph names also Vallikāmam (Valikāmam) and Maṭṭivāl (Maṭṭuvil) as ports in north Ceylon where Parakkamabāhu was preparing for invasion. ¹⁰

Dhātusena (455-473) founded two vihāras in the north, Thūpaviţthi and Dhātusena. 11

- 4. M. 20. 26.
- 5. M. 24. 25: 25. 104: 32. 52, 55; Thv. 213; E.Z. III. 237.
- 6. E.H.B. 112.
- 7. M. 32. 53: 38. 48; E.H.B. 67.
- 8. M. 35. 124.
- 9. Raj. 22; M. 54. 12: 83. 17; Puj. 42; N.S. 23; Raj. 58, 62, 64; 'The Colas', 366-372, 378, 379.
 - 10. M. 36. 43; Puj. 42; N.S. 23.
 - 11. M. 38. 48.

In the reign of Parakkamabāhu II (1236-1271) Tamil invaders held sway in Vālikagāma or Väligomu (modern *Valikamām*, see above): a few years later invaders were wont to land at Khuddavāligāma, probably the same place. Väligam is mentioned in the Sīgiri graffiti. 12

The ports of the Jaffna peninsula were less important commercially in ancient times than Mahatittha (Mantai), but they were frequently used by South Indian and other invaders for making their landings. The Minipē inscription states that in the 8th year of Kalyanavatī (1209/10) a great host of Demalas descended upon Ceylon, overran the whole Island and destroyed the entire social structure and the religious organisation. A Pāṇḍyan prince invaded Ceylon with a Pāṇḍyan army, took possession of the country and ruled at Polonnaruva as Parakkamapandu II from 1211 to 1214. He was ousted by the Kālinga, Māgha, and his Kerala troops: Māgha ruled for 21 years, the period of greatest tribulation which the Sinhalese people have ever undergone. They were sorely persecuted by torture, mutilation, expropriation of property and every form of oppression and pillage. In 1245 the Jāvaka Candabhānu (identified as Srī Dhammarāja of Tambalinga or Ligor), invaded Ceylon and retained his hold on the Jaffna peninsula for 18 years. Then came Pandyan invasions and a conquest, following a famine in Ceylon, which lasted for 20 years from 1283. This completed the Tamilisation of the Jaffna peninsula. Parakkamabāhu Î (1153-1186) undoubtedly had complete control over the Jaffna peninsula and district, although the Tamil element in the population there was probably predominant as the sequel to earlier invasions and conquests, particularly the Cola conquest which lasted for 77 years from 993 to 1070: his inscription at Nayinatīvu is in Tamil. The repeated Tamil invasions and occupations which began in 1209 and continued till 1303, a period of nearly a century, brought a permanent termination to Sinhalese domination of the Jaffna peninsula: the Tanills took possession of that territory and retained it thereafter. 13

CHAPTER XI

THE VAVUNIYA DISTRICT

The present *Vavūniya District* includes the earlier *Mullaitīvu District* which fronted the north-east coast. It is a dry zone region, somewhat more elevated inland, well provided with irrigation works though not of great size or elaboration.

One of the earliest and largest pre-Christian cave monasteries in Ceylon was that at *Periyapuliyankulam-malai*, a rocky hill about 7 miles north-east of *Vavūniya*. Within a mile is a smaller cave monastery at *Erupotāna*, and within two miles a third monastery at *Mahakaccaṭkōḍi* (Sinh. *Tittavälkaḍa*). It is not improbable that these three groups of ruins formed one, great monastery in ancient times. The inscribed caves amount to 38 at *Periyapuliyankulam*, 12 at *Erupotāna* and 5 at *Mahakaccaṭkōḍi*. The principal donor was the princess Anuradi, the daughter of king Naga and the wife of king Uti: these royal personages are not identifiable in the Chronicles, and they may have been local rulers of the late 3rd or early 2nd centuries B.C. The village Tabakara is mentioned in one inscription at *Periyapuliyankulam*.

Another site with pre-Christian cave inscriptions is *Vedūkunarimalai*, about 4 miles southward of *Nedunkēni*.²

Pelivāpikagāma or Pelivāpigāma was 7 yojanas (55 to 65 miles) northward of Anurādhapura, and gems are said to have been found in a cave there in the reign of Duṭṭhagāmaṇi Abhaya (B.C. 161-137). Parker proposes to identify this tank with modern *Vavunik-Kulam*, but it is very unlikely that a tank of this large size was constructed at this early period.³

Khallāṭanāga (B.C. IIO-IO3) founded Kurundavāsoka Vihāra. There was a Pariveṇa named Kurundacullaka. The Kurundī Aṭṭhakathā was composed at Kurundivelu Vihāra. The village Kurundaka is mentioned in the Commentaries. Aggabodhi I (571-604) is credited with the building of Kurunda Vihāra (the Sinhalese Chronicles call it Kurundu tank), around which he planted a coconut plantation said to have been 3 yojanas (25 to 30 miles) in extent. A minister of Aggabodhi IV (667-683) built a pāsāda in Kurundapillaka Vihāra. Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110) restored Kuruindiya Vihāra. It is very probable that all these are variant names of one and the same monastery situated

^{12.} M. 83. 17: 88. 23; Puj. 42; Sig. Graff. I, App. C.

^{13.} M. Caps. 80 and 81; E.Z. V. 156.

^{1.} A.S.C.A.R., 1905, 43-49; U.C.R. VIII, No. 2, 124.

^{2.} A.S.C.A.R., 1905, 43-49.

^{3.} M. 28. 39; Thv. 163.

in Kurundi-rattha, an area corresponding to present Karikattumūlai South Division of Vavūniya District: the ancient name is preserved in the ruins at modern Kuruntan-Ūr. The Kurundi district was under Tamil domination in the reign of Parakkamabāhu II (1236-1271) and was later occupied by the invader Candabhānu. Near Kurunda, Aggabodhi I built Ambilapassava Vihāra.

The ruins at $T\bar{o}nigala$, about 6 miles from $Vav\bar{u}niva$ on the $Horovapot\bar{a}na$ road, are named Yahisapavata Vihara in an inscription there of Sirimeghavanna (301-328). The village Kadubala is also mentioned.⁵

Rājamittaka, on the boundary of Uttaradesa (the northern province) was the scene of a battle. So was Mahātālitagāma, where the army of Sena I was defeated by the Pāṇḍyans: Mahātālitagāma may be identical with Matalagama mentioned in a pre-Christian inscription at Handagala Vihāra, near Käbittigollāva.

The place Kokeļā mentioned in the Sīgiri Graffiti is modern $Kokkil\bar{a}y$.

Māmaduva tank, 8 miles north-east of *Vavūniya*, is called Mahida väva in a 9th century inscription *in situ* and is identical with Mahindatalāka tank restored by Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186).8

A roth century inscription at Buddhanahela, about 7 miles north of Padaviva, close to the boundary between the Vavūniya and Anurādhapura districts, gives the name of the site as Nāgirigala situated in Danādakadara division which, at that time, must have extended over parts of both Vavūniya and Anurādhapura districts. To the vihāra was assigned the village Nānnaru: Nānnaru may be equivalent to Nakanakara (P. Nāga-nagara), a place mentioned in two early inscriptions. In a paper to be published shortly, Professor Paranavitana identifies Danādakadara as the district around the main channel issuing from Dhanavāpi or Danāväva, later called Padīvāpi, modern Padaviya.

CHAPTER XII

THE PUTTALAM DISTRICT

The Puttalam District to the north of Chilaw is in the dry zone while that portion of it to the south of Chilaw is in the wet zone. The Vilpattu region (between the Kalā Oya and the Mōderagam Āru) of Puttalam District, except for its southernmost sector around Pomparippu, is an area of numerous, shallow, natural lakes (S. vila; T. villu) separated by forest and scrub: there are large extents of near-desert formations and stretches of bare land. The soil is infertile and there are no ruins, irrigation works or other vestiges of the settlement of civilised man in the region, but there are abundant remains, in chert and quartz tools, implements and other artefacts, of the existence of pre-historic man. During the historical period of some 25 centuries, the Villu area has been an abode of wild life. South of the Kalā Oya the land is flat near the coast, but inland there are many rock-groups and low hills. It was well provided with irrigation facilities in ancient times.

Two of the oldest inscriptions in Ceylon are inscribed on caves at *Piccandiyāva*, a large rocky hill 9 miles south-east of the 9th mile on the *Puttalam*-Anurādhapura road. The donor in both cases was the Brāhmaṇa Gobuti who was both teacher and physician of Maharaja Devanapiya Gamiṇi Tiśa who, there is little reason to doubt, is identical with the first Buddhist king of Ceylon, Devānaṃpiya Tissa (B.C. 247-207). This hill has numerous, drip-ledged caves in scattered groups at all levels. Adjoining it are two other hills, *Moṭṭamalai*, which has very few ruins, and *Mullēgamakanda*, which has caves, a thūpa and other buildings at its foot and a group of caves on its summit. It is very probable that the three hills originally formed one large monastery.¹

Best known, however, of the pre-Christian inscriptions in the Puttalam District are the two long and large epigraphs on the rock called Tōnigala, near the 39th mile on the Kurunāgala-Puttalam road. This rock is an extension of the main and much loftier rock-group called Paramākanda which lies to the northward, on which are caves and other ruins. In the inscriptions this rock-group is called Acagirikatisapavata (P. Acchagirikatisapabbata), and two townships are mentioned, Acanagara and Tavirikiya-nagara. The tank (un-named) donated to the vihāra by the inscription is the small tank, still functioning, below Tōnigala. The inscription is dated in the reign of Devanapiya Maharaja Gamiņi Abaya, very probably Duṭṭhagāmaṇi Abhaya (B.C. 161-137).²

- 1. A.I.C. 84; U.C.R. VII, No. 4, 241, note 32; A.I.C. 83.
- 2. A.I.C. 1.

^{4.} M, 33, 32; 42, 15, 17; 46, 21; 60, 60; 83, 16; 88, 64; Puj, 28, 42; N.S. 23; Raj, 56; E.H.B, 2, 10-12, 23, 81, 122.

^{5.} E.Z. III. 178.

^{6.} M. 44. 72: 50. 14.

^{7.} Sig. Graff. I, App. C.

^{8.} C.J.S. (G) II; III; M. 79. 28-37.

^{9.} E.Z. I. 198.

A third extensive pre-Christian monastery with caves, thūpas and stone-pillared ruins scattered over several low, rocky hills is that at *Virandagoḍa*, about 6 miles north-west of the 18th mile on the *Puttalam*-Anurādhapura road. One inscription of the 2nd or 1st B.C. records the donation of a cave by the Nakaravudika (P. Nagaraguttika), the high official who had charge of the capital, Anurādhapura. In a later inscription of Mahinda I (730-733) at this site, the vihāra is named Salvāṇā Vehera situated at Nadunnaru in Kesigamu-bim sub-district.³

Other pre-Christian sites in the Puttalam District are:—(i) Kīnagahavävakanda, 9 miles east of the 13th mile on the Puttalam-Anurādhapura road; (ii) Kōnvävakanda, 2 miles east of the 13th mile on the same road; (iii) Vēragala or Patahēkanda, 7 miles east of the 10th mile on the same road; (iv) Lābugala Vihāra, near the 5th mile on the Ānamaduva-Usväva road; and a few others, all bearing epigraphical evidence of their antiquity.⁴

Kālivāpi, also called Keļivasā, Kaļivasā, Kalivāsama, and Keļavāsa, is attributed both to Vasabha (67-111) and to Dhātusena (455-473). Parakkamabāhu restored Kālivāpi in Dakkhinadesa which Codrington has identified as *Kaliyavadana* in *Pitigal Kōralē*.⁵

Uruvelā, a landing place on the western coast, also called, doubtless spuriously, Mahaväligama, was founded, according to one tradition, by a minister of Vijaya, and, according to another, by a brother-in-law of Paṇḍuvāsudeva, and was one of the earliest Indo-Aryan settlements in Ceylon. It was 5 yojanas or 20 gav (40 to 50 miles) to west of Anurādhapura, and pearls are said to have been found on the shore there in the reign of Duṭṭhagāmaṇi Abhaya (B.C. 161-137). Like Tambapaṇṇi and Magaṇa, it was a pearling port. Near Uruvelā, King Subha (60-67) founded Valli or Villa Vihāra, recently identified by an epigraph as a group of ruins close to the 21st mile on the Puttalam-Pomparippu track. Uruvelā was, therefore, at or near the mouth of the Kalā Oya.6

To Pucchārāma Vihāra, Udaya I (797-801) granted the rich village of Ussānaviṭṭhi: there is a modern *Uhanpiṭiya*, 8 miles east of Battulu Oya.⁷

At Galge Vihara, about 8 miles south-east of Pomparippu, a 1st century inscription on a cave mentions Kadahalaka tank, the

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breached tank near the ruins. At Patti-eliya, a few miles north of $Galg\bar{c}\ Vih\bar{a}ra$, there is a 10th century pillar inscription containing an immunity grant.⁸

Tabba-raṭṭha was the most westerly frontier district of Parak-kamabāhu's 12th century principality of Dakkhiṇadesa: it was the area around present $Tabbova-v\ddot{a}va$, comprising $R\ddot{a}javanni$ Pattuva and the adjacent territory south of the $Kal\bar{a}$ Oya as far as the sea (Codrington). Parakkamabāhu I restored Tabbavāpi, present $Tabbova-v\ddot{a}va$.

An inscription of the 3rd century at *Mālasnegala*, about 5 miles from the 17th mile on the *Puttalam*-Anurādhapura road, records the grant of the field below Tisaviya tank at Jayagama in the market-town (niyamatana) of Kaledigevi to the Vihāra at the site. The name Kaledigevi is doubtless associated with the Kāla-nadī (*Kalā Oya*).

The old name of *Ihala Puliyankulam*, 2 miles north-west of the 17th mile on the *Puttalam*-Anurādhapura road, is given in an inscription of the reign of Parakkamabāhu I as Māranhella: the inscription is attested by the governor of Māyā, which means that this locality was in the principality of Māyā at that time.¹⁰

Mallavāļāna was a coastal district in the *Puttalam* region where Gajabāhu II had a strong fortress in the 12th century: it was north of Parakkamabāhu's frontier post of Vālikākhetta which Codrington has identified as present *Vellāvela*, near *Battulu Oya*. 11

Kalapiti-Kuļi mentioned in the Sīgiri graffiti, is modern $Kal \, bitiva.^{12}$

One of Parakkamabāhu's great irrigation projects on the Jajjarā-nadī (Dāduru Oya) was the Koṭṭhabaddha scheme. This was an old work in ruin and its maintenance had created difficulties for former kings. Parakkamabāhu's engineers were reluctant to undertake its restoration because they were doubtful whether it would endure, but the prince was more confident and directed that the work be proceeded with. First, a canal was constructed from the dam site to the Rattakāra district and then the Koṭṭhabaddha dam was built very carefully and solidly. The water diverted by the dam was discharged through the canal to the sea, irrigating a vast new stretch of fields en route. The entire area was named Koṭṭhabaddha after the dam. No ruins survive of the great Koṭṭhabaddha dam: it needed

^{3.} A.S.C.A.R., 1911-12, 69-71; U.C.R. VIII, No. 2, 118; E.Z. V. 123.

^{4.} A.I.C. 82.

^{5.} M. 35. 95: 68. 45: M.T. 653; Puj. 21, 27; Raj. 47.

^{6.} D. 21. 47; M. 7. 45: 9. 9: 28. 36: 35, 58; Puj. 2; Thv. 163.

^{7.} M. 49. 28.

^{8.} A.S.C.A.R., 1896. 6: 1954. 38.

^{9.} M. 68. 43: 69. 8-12.

^{10.} J.R.A.S. (C.B.) XXX, 279.

^{11.} M. 70. 60-62.

^{12.} Sig. Graff. I, App. C.

repairs during Parakkamabāhu's reign and the forebodings of his engineers as to its impermanence apparently came true within a few years. The Sengal Oya in all probability represents the canal which once bore the waters which the Koṭṭhabaddha dam held back. If this identification is correct, the area between the Rattambala Oya and the Däduru Oya was the Koṭṭhabaddha district of Parakkamabāhu's time.¹³

Kirāvāpi in Dakkhinadesa was restored by Parakkamabāhu and has been identified by Codrington as *Kirāvāva*, about 10 miles east of *Chilaw*. Parakkamabāhu also restored in Dakkhinadesa:—(i) Sūkaraggāma tank, present *Ūrapotta*, 3 miles north of *Bingiriya* (Codrington); (ii) Karaviṭṭhavilatta, identified by Codrington as *Karaviṭa* and *Vilattāva* tanks, near *Bingiriya*; and (iii) Vilattākhaṇḍa weir.¹⁴

Mālavalli or Mālavalliya tank, probably present *Malayavelliya*, near *Chilaw*, was restored by Parakkamabāhu. ¹⁵

Between 1188 and 1200 the Cōlas landed at Salāvattoṭa, present *Halāvatta* or *Chilaw*, and penetrated as far as Srīpura, near modern *Hiripitiya*. 16

CHAPTER XIII

THE KURUNÄGALA DISTRICT

(A). Vanni Hatpattu

The whole of $Vanni\ Hatpattu$ is in the dry zone and it is situated between the $Kal\bar{a}$ Oya and the $D\ddot{a}duru$ Oya; through it flows the $M\bar{\imath}$ Oya. It was well provided in ancient times with irrigation facilities, including river-diversion dams, canals, large reservoirs and numerous village tanks. There are many rock-outcrops and several scattered rocky hills.

Giribā-raṭṭha was the frontier district of Dakkhiṇadesa immediately to east of Tabba-raṭṭha, and it was the area around modern Giribāva, mainly Mī-Ōyen Ēgoḍa Kōralē (Codrington). Its northern boundary was the Kalā Oya. Parakkamabāhu's general in this district threw a long, solid bridge across the river and crossed to Angamu on the opposite bank. At Vēragala Vihāra, a considerable rock of imposing appearance in the modern village of Giribāva, there is a pre-Christian cave inscription.¹

Gallena Vihāra, 2 miles west of the 47th mile on the Kurunāgala-Anurādhapura road, was an important monastery in pre-Christian times. Its founder, according to the cave inscriptions there, was the prince Tisaya, the son of Devanapiya Maharaja Gamāni Abaya who, in all probability, was Vaṭṭagāmaṇi Abhaya (B.C. 89-77). A 1st century inscription at this site mentions:—(i) Aba-aṭasa dam; (ii) Avulada, tract of fields; and (iii) Golapaṇa, a village; Golapānugāma, also called Golagam and Golagam, was granted to the Mahāvihāra by Buddhadāsa (337-365): Golagam is mentioned in the Sīgiri graffiti and Goluggamu in a 10th century inscription.²

King Vankanāsikatissa (III-II4) built the Mahāmangala Vihāra on the banks of the Goṇa-nadī ($Kalā\ Oya$). At $K\bar{a}digala$, a picturesque rock rising from the south bank of the river, about $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles northwest of the 49th mile on the $Kurun\bar{a}gala$ -Anurādhapura road, there is an inscription of the mother of Vankanāsikatissa, and the ruins here are, most probably, those of the ancient Mahāmangala Vihāra. The rock is mounted by flights of over 400 rock-cut steps, with thūpas at foot and summit and other thūpas at mediate levels.³

^{13.} M. 68. 16-31: 79. 66, 67; Cey. Hist. Journal, IV, 53, 56.

^{14.} M. 68. 45, 48: 79. 28-37.

^{15.} M. 70. 67.

^{16.} J.R.A.S. (C.B.), XXXI, 385.

^{1.} M. 70. 123-131.

^{2.} M. 37. 173; Puj. 24, 25; Raj. 54; A.I.C. 2; A.S.C.A.R., 1935, 10; E.Z. I. 42; Sig. Graff. I, App. C.

^{3.} M. 35. 112-114; A.S.C.A.R., 1895. 8; C.J.S. (G), II. 123.

Hatthikucchi Vihāra is described in the Pāli Commentaries as a well-known monastery in ancient times, and Buddhaghosa says that on Hatthikucchi-pabbhāra was a cave suited for meditation. Aggabodhi I (571-604) erected a pāsāda in the Vihāra, and so did Aggabodhi VII (772-777). Aggabodhi IX (831-833) rebuilt a ruined pāsāda. A 2nd century inscription at the extensive ruins at Rājanganē, 3 miles west of the 45th mile on the Kurunāgala-Anurādhapura road, names the site Atiku(ci)ya Vihara: this was, therefore, the ancient Hatthikucchi Vihara. The cave referred to by Buddhaghosa must be the summit cave on the southern hill: it has a pool of water inside it. In other inscriptions of the 5th to 7th centuries at Rājanganē, the following place-names occur:—(i) Sahala; (ii) Vilagama; (iii) Magalaya; (iv) Manirasagagama; and (v) Huragama. In the Chronicle, Vāhadīpa Vihāra is mentioned twice along with Hatthikucchi Vihāra: the Sigiri graffiti mention Vahadiva and Vahadū. Udaya I (797-801) built in Vāhadīpa Vihāra the Senaggabodhipabbata pāsāda. The āvāsa, Vahadū, is mentioned in the inscription of Kassapa V (913-923) at Abhayagiri Vihāra.4

At *Tōniyagala* and *Padigala*, I mile south and 3 miles south-west respectively of the 6th mile on the *Galgamuva-Nānnēriya* road, there are ruins with inscriptions of the 1st century B.C. and the 1st century A.C.

Tōrava Mavilāva Vihāra, a remote and attractive site about 2 miles south of the 7th mile on the Galgamuva-Nānnēriva road, has several inscribed caves, two thūpas, many pokuṇas and some ancient stonework. As the cave inscriptions attest the Vihāra was founded in the 2nd century B.C. One cave inscription is a grant by the bojika of Bamaṇaga(ri), another is by the owner of Punapeṭika tank, and a third is by the king's Treasurer. A mutilated rock inscription of the 2nd century is dated in the 4th year of a king whose name is obliterated: it names the site Tisapavata Vihara and records the grant to it of shares in:—(i) Tisaviya; (ii) Rataviya; (iii) Damaviya; and (iv) Matuka.⁵

At Sangakpālakanda, 3 miles north of the 6th mile on the Galgamuva-Nānnēriya road, a 2nd century inscription records the donation of shares in Narivigamaka tank to Garimalaka Vihara.

Anurārāma in Mahādevarattakurava Vihāra in Kāsikhanda was restored by Mahānāga (569-571). There is a modern \bar{K} asikeṭṭa, 2 miles north of Ambanpola, but no ruins in its vicinity.

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Moravāpi was a frontier district of Dakkhinadesa immediately to east of Giribā-raṭṭha: it was bounded on the north by the Kalā Oya and was an area extending over Hatalispahē Kōralē West and the southern portion of Nāgampaha Kōralē. Moravāpi is mentioned in the 1st century and is probably the large, breached reservoir south of the Kalā Oya in the north-west corner of Nāgampaha Kōralē. Dhammaramma tank built by Mahāsena is also called Morakaparaka: the tanks Biļora, Paraka and Moravāpi are mentioned in association. Moriya-raṭṭha was, judging by its name, the original home of the Moriya clan, but in Parakkamabāhu's time in the 12th century five Lambakaṇṇa chieftains and their followers lived in Moriya-raṭṭha. Parakkamabāhu restored Moravāpi tank.8

At $Padipanc\bar{a}va$, 2 miles east of the 44th mile on the $Kurun\bar{a}gala$ -Anurādhapura road, there are caves with a pre-Christian inscription, and at $L\bar{\imath}kolav\bar{a}va$, 2 miles east of the 48th mile on the same road, there are ruins with an inscription of Mahāsena (275-301).

Parakkamabāhu restored Girisigāmukavāpi, present *Galgamuva* tank. An inscription of a king styled Raja Abaya in characters of the 1st century above the drip-ledge of a collapsed cave near the tank, mentions Vaḍamana village.¹⁰

Mahānāga (569-571) granted Tintiņikagāma to the Mahāvihāra. At this place Aggabodhi III (628) was defeated in battle. Parakkamabāhu restored Tintiņigāma tank. Tintiņigāma village and tank have been identified by Codrington as present Siyambalāgamuva, I mile east of the 44th mile on the Kurunāgala-Anurādhapura road. 11

The rebel Moggallāna in the reign of Saṃghatissa (614) advanced from Rohaṇa and occupied an armed camp at Mahāgalla, present Nikavarāṭiya. Then he advanced towards Anurādhapura and took up a position at Rattivihāra: the decisive battle was fought at Kadalīnivāta, between Rattivihāra and Anurādhapura. 12

 $D\bar{e}vagiri\ Vih\bar{a}ra$, 4 miles south-east of Galgamuva, is called Sitavahanaka Vihara in a 2nd century inscription in situ: also mentioned is the village Navahagama. 13

Inscriptions of the 2nd century at $Bimpokuṇa\ Vihāra$, 5 miles west-south-west of Galgamuva, mention:—(i) Niṭileviṭi tank; there is a village in this vicinity now called Niṭalava (see next paragraph); and (ii) Cataha tank.¹⁴

^{4.} M. 42. 41: 48. 65: 49. 33, 76; E.H.B. 103, 122; E.Z. I. 56; Sig. Graff. I, App. C.

^{5.} A.S.C.A.R., 1911-12, 119; U.C.R. VIII, No. 2, 122.

^{6.} A.S.C.A.R., 1911-12., 19.

^{7.} M. 41. 101.

^{8.} M. 37. 48: 38. 13: 69. 13; E.M. 37. 47; M.T. 686; E.H.B. 83, 85.

^{9.} A.S.C.A.R., 1895, 13: 1911-12, 118.

^{10.} M. 68. 49; C.J.S. (G) II. 23.

^{11.} M. 41. 96: 44. 125: 68. 47.

^{12.} M. 44. 3-6.

^{13.} A.I.C. 53.

^{14.} A.I.C. 80; C.J.S. (G), II. 22.

At Nillakgama, near Nitalava (see last paragraph), are the ruins of a Bodhighara whose stonework carries exquisite ornamentation. An inscription of the 8th or oth century there records the gift of ten of the sculptured elephants on the frieze by a resident of Monoragal. ¹⁵

At the Äsvädduma ruins, $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles east of Ambanpola, inscriptions of the 2nd century by a queen and a king's daughter give the ancient name of the site as Nakaragana Nunnery. This is most probably identical with the Nagarangana Vihāra in the southern division of the Anurādhapura kingdom founded by Sūratissa early in the 2nd century B.C. Also mentioned in the inscriptions are:—
(i) Tacigama; and (ii) Mahakoḍapatiya. 16

Parakkamabāhu restored Maṇḍika tank, identified by Codrington as present $M\ddot{a}\dot{d}\dot{v}\ddot{a}va$ tank between $M\ddot{a}h\bar{o}$ and Ambanpola. 17

In the reign of the Kālinga invader Māgha (1214-1235) a Sinhalese chieftain built a fortress at Subhapabbata, also called Sundarapabbata, Subhacāla and Subhagiripura; it is present Yāpahuva, near $M\bar{a}h\bar{o}$. From the fortress, forays were made on the invaders in occupation of this locality. Vijayabāhu III (1232-1236) fixed Salagalkandura as the boundary between his territory and the enemy in occupation of the northern plain and ordered his sons not to go beyond it. Vijayabāhu IV (1271-1273) stationed his son at Subhapabbata to guard the northern plain against invaders. Yāpahuva was the scene of the defeat of the Jāvaka invader, Candabhānu (Srī Dhammarāja of Tambalinga or Ligor). Thereafter, Vijayabāhu IV improved the fortifications, built a rampart and a palace and stationed his vounger brother there. Bhuvanekabāhu I (1273-1284) transferred his capital from Dambadeniya to Yāpahuva and greatly improved the fortress. The Pandyans captured and plundered it and carried off all the roval treasures, including the Tooth Relic: Parakkamabāhu III (1284-1291) recovered the Relic by negotiation. Yāpahuva was abandoned after its capture by the Pandvans. Several centuries before it was turned into a fortress, the lower slopes of Yāpahuva formed a Buddhist monastery. The present ruins of the fortress-capital of Bhuvanekabāhu I preserve its walls and moat and the sculptured stonework of the third staircase.18

At $Kaik\bar{a}vala\ Vih\bar{a}ra$, $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles south of the $13\frac{1}{2}$ mile on the $M\bar{a}h\bar{o}\text{-}Nikav\ddot{a}va$ road, there are inscriptions of the 1st century B.C. and of the 1st and 2nd centuries A.C.¹⁹

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At Ratgallēgama Vihāra, $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles north of the 13th mile on the $M\bar{a}h\bar{b}$ -Nikaväva road, there are inscriptions of the 2nd and 6th centu.ies.²⁰

Diyabätta Vihāra, I mile south of the 18th mile on the $M\bar{a}h\bar{o}$ -Nikaväva road, is an impressive rock nearly as large as $Y\bar{a}$ pahuva. It was a monastery founded in pre-Christian times as its many cave inscriptions testify. In an inscription in situ of king Mahallaka Nāga (136-143) the monastery is called Tikaṇaka Vihara and the Punakoḍaka tank is mentioned. 21

At Karambē, $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles west of the 22nd mile on the Hiripitiya-Polpitigama road, there are inscriptions of the 6th century which mention Kadaragamaya and Cahanagamaya.

 $H\bar{\imath}nukv\ddot{a}va$, 3 miles south of the 14th mile on the $M\bar{a}h\bar{o}$ - $Nikav\ddot{a}va$ road, is an abandoned site of which scarcely any remains exist. A 2nd century inscription there mentions (i) Kulataka tank, and (ii) Abagiriyaviya. ²²

A 1st century inscription at Dikgala, near $Timbiriy\bar{a}va$, 2 miles north of the 6th mile on the $Nikavar\ddot{a}tiya$ - $M\bar{a}h\bar{o}$ road, is unusual in its subject-matter: it reads, 'the thupa of the 10th Pratyeka (private) Buddha'. ²³

At Hälambagala Vihāra, 8 miles north-east of Nikavaräṭiya, a 1st century inscription mentions Utara tank.²⁴

A 1st century inscription at *Randenigama*, 5 miles east-north-east of *Nikavaräţiya*, mentions:—(i) Mahapiṭagama; (ii) Abayavika; and (iii) Kaḍagutaka tank.²⁵

Kāsavāgama is mentioned in a 10th century inscription at $It\bar{a}va$, near $Nikavar\ddot{a}tiya$. 26

Mahāsena (275-301) built Suļugaļu or Suguļuva tank, present *Huļugalla-vāva*, 5 miles north-north-east of *Nikavarāṭiya*. Suļugalu occurs in a 10th century inscription.²⁷

Mahāgalla tank, also called Māgaļu and Mahaļuva, is present Māgallaväva at Nikavarätiya, and was built by Mahāsena (275-301). Mahāgalla was granted to the Mahallarāja Practising House by Aggabodhi III (629-639). The rebel Moggallāna, in the reign of Saṃghatissa (614) advanced from Rohaṇa and occupied an armed

^{15.} A.S.C.A.R., 1954, 25.

^{16.} M. 21. 4; M.T. 424, 5.

^{17.} M. 68. 44.

^{18.} M. 81. 2: 88. 23-26, 61-78: 90. 5, 34, 35, 43-55; Puj. 29.

^{19.} A.I.C. 13.

^{20.} A.I.C. 64.

^{21.} A.I.C. 48; U.C.R., VIII, No. 2, 123.

^{22.} A.S.C.A.R. 1911-12, 118.

^{23.} C. I.S. (G), II. 101, 126.

^{24.} C.J.S. (G), II. 192, 193.

^{25.} A.S.C.A.R., 1911-12, 118.

^{26.} E.Z. III, 143.

^{27.} Puj. 24; Raj. 52; E.Z. III. 300.

camp at Mahāgalla. Vijayabāhu in 1070 captured the Cōļa fort at Mahāgalla. When Parakkamabāhu built the canal now known as $Rid\bar{\imath}$ - $B\ddot{a}nd\dot{\imath}$ - $\ddot{A}la$, Mahāgalla tank was enlarged. In a Tamil inscription at $Budumutt\bar{d}va$, near $Nikavar\ddot{a}tiya$, the place is called Māgala, renamed Vikkirama Calāmēgapura. ²⁸

In developing the resources of his principality of Dakkhinadesa, Parakkamabāhu harnessed the waters of the Jajjarā-nadī (Däduru Ova). by damming the river at three points. The lowest dam, Kotthabaddha, has already been described. Highest up the river was the Sūkaranijihara dam at the confluence of the two tributaries, Sankhavaddhamānaka (Hakvatuna Oya) and Kumbhīlavāna (Kimbulvāna Oya). The spot is now known as Dēmodera and the ruins of the dam are still to be seen. The waters impounded by the Dēmodera dam were conducted along a channel to Tilagullaka tank, identified by Codrington as present, breached Talagallaväva, and the excess passed over the spillway of that tank and down the stream now known as the Talagalla-äla to rejoin the Däduru Oya at Ebavalapitiya. Here was the second or middle dam, called the Dorādattika dam. From this dam, a canal, now restored and called the Ridī-bändi-äla, conducted the water to Mahāgalla tank at Nikavarātiva; the bund of Mahāgalla tank was strengthened and a larger spillway built to enable it to contain and discharge the additional volume of water brought down by the new, feeder canal. In the modern restoration, the Ridī-bändi-āla takes off, not from the old dam site at Ebavala pitiva, but from a new dam built 21 miles upstream.29

Parakkamabāhu restored the following tanks in the Nikavarāţiya area:—(i) Tilagulla tank, present Talagalla, south of Māhō (Codrington); (ii) Ambavāsā tank, present Vasiyāva, near Nikavarāţiya (Codrington); (iii) Mahākirāļa tank, present Mahagirilla, 5 miles north of Nikavarāţiya; and (iv) Ambāla tank, present Ambāle, near the 31st mile on the Kurunāgala-Puttalam road (Codrington).³⁰

Habugoluva, present $Halb\bar{e}$, in the sub-district Yagulā-kuļiya, is mentioned in an inscription of Kassapa V (898-914) at $Halb\bar{e}$, 8 miles north-west of Nikavarātiya (Paranavitana).³¹

(B). Hiriyāla Hatpattu

Hiriyāla Hatpattu falls within the dry zone. It is a hilly and picturesque area, numerous rocky ranges, some over 1,000 feet high, interrupting the level ground. There were numerous village tanks irrigating the flat, valley-lands, but reservoirs of large size were very few. In early times the southern part of Hiriyāla Hatpattu was in Malaya.

- 28. M. 44. 119, 120; 45. 27: 37. 48: 58. 44; Puj. 24; Raj. 52; E.Z. III. 312.
- 29. M. 68. 32-38: 68. 43, 44; C.H.J. IV, 54, 55.
- 30. M. 58. 43: 68. 43-47.
- 31. C.J.S. (G), II, 192.

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Mahīpāla-rattha, a name connected with the Mī Oya, was a boundary district of Dakkhinadesa and extended on both sides of the upper reaches of the Mī Oya, embracing Hatalispahē Kōralē East, Nikavagampaha Kōralē and Divigandahē Kōralē.³²

Tammanāva Vihāra at Kaṭugampolagama, 8 miles west of the 6th mile on the Käkirāva-Kalāväva road, is called Arakipipala Vihāra in a 5th century inscription.³³

Sässēruva Vihāra was one of the largest pre-Christian cave monasteries but its ancient name is not known. It stands on the boundary of the present Anurādhapura and Kurunāgala districts, 8 miles northeast of the 8th mile on the Galgamuva-Nikaväva road, and the summit of the higher hill (Mahakanda) is 1146 feet high. Of the numerous cave inscriptions, one is by the daughter of a king who, in all probability, was Vattagāmani Abhaya (B.C. 89-77): the princess was married to a chieftain (parumaka) and this suggests that the king received some invaluable aid from the chieftain's family when he was in exile. Some long inscriptions of the 1st century are now mutilated and appear once to have contained the Vihāra's ancient name. Conspicuous among the monuments here which have survived is a colossal Image of the Buddha in stone, 39 feet 3 inches high. The following place-names occur in the pre-Christian and 1st century inscriptions:—(i) Yava tank; (ii) Punadagama; (iii) Haligama; (iv) Kadalagama, probably present Kandulugamuva, near Nāgama; (v) Bamanagama; (vi) Padehina tank; (vii) Maravila; (viii) Vajikavaranaka; and (ix) Eraka.34

The ancient Vessagiri Vihāra founded by Devānampiya Tissa (B.C. 247-207) is certainly not the cave monastery in the southern part of Anuradhapura which now bears this name: inscriptions in situ identify modern Vessagiriya with the ancient Issarasamana Vihāra. Historically, too, the situation of Vessagiri could be inferred to be several miles south of Anuradhapura, because Vattagamani Abhaya, fleeing after his defeat in the northern suburbs of the city, took refuge in the Vessagiri forest: and modern Vessagiriya or its vicinity was no place of refuge for a king fleeing from an enemy in occupation of his capital. Vessagiri was so named because 500 Vessas who received the pabbajā came from the village Girigāma. Giri Vihāra, also called Girigāma Vihāra, existed in Kuṭakanna Tissa's time (B.C. 44-22), and was very probably identical with Vessagiri. Mahāgirigāma and Girigāmakanna are probably synonymous with Girigāma. Giriyāvāpi, restored by Parakkamabahu, has been identified by Codrington with present Galgiriyāva tank near the 9th mile on the Galgamuva-Nikaväva road. Pabbatārāma, built by a minister of Vattagāmani Abhaya, was

^{32.} M. 69. 8-12.

^{33.} C.J.S. (G) II. 110; E.Z. IV. 128.

^{34.} M. 33. 42-50, 90: 68. 6; E.M. 20. 25; M.T. 616, 5-10; A.S.C.A.R., 1895, 12; C.J.S. (G) II. 27, 28, 182, 200, 201; E.Z. I. 35: IV. 128; U.C.R. VII, No 4, 242: VIII, No. 2, 122: No. 4, 260; E.H.B. 84, 123, App. I. B.

to the south of Vessagiri and close to Silāsobbhakandaka, and near the boundary of Malaya. Vessagiri and Girigāma appear to have their names preserved in the range of hills now called Galgiriyāva which extends from the 12th mile on the Galgamuva-Nikaväva road for 10 miles to the north as far as Sässēruvakanda: there are 6 or 7 separate groups of caves and ruins on this range. Near Giri Vihāra were Madhu-angana and also, probably, Pancaggalalena. Moggallana I built Pabbata Vihāra. Pabbatārāma and Šilāsobbhakandaka must have been situated on two of the many hills to southward of Galgiriyāva on which ancient sites exist, namely, the rock groups around Polpitigama, Mā-eliva, Dekandavala, Hangamuva, Arankālē, Dolukanda, etc. This southern part of Hirivala Hatpattu was therefore in Malaya in early times. At the foot of Galgiriyāva-kanda, near Kaduruväva, 21 miles north-east of the 8th mile on the Galgamuva-Nikaväva road, is a group of caves and other ruins with inscriptions from pre-Christian times to the 1st century. The following place-names occur in the inscriptions:—(i) Gatika; (ii) Mayahala or Mayihalaraka; (iii) Kataka-nakara; (iv) Pehakara tank in the sub-district Badaganakaniya; (v) Itata tank; (vi) Datavika; and (vii) Karajavika.35

At Ganēkanda Vihāra, 3 miles north-north-east of Polpitigama, there are inscriptions of the 1st century B.C. and of the 1st and 2nd centuries A.C. These inscriptions give the following place-names:—(i) Gokaņegama: a 7th century inscription at Ambagasväva, 6 miles to north-west, contains the name Gukaņa; (ii) Sidaviya; (iii) Tanegama; (iv) Katari; (v) Navalaka; (vi) Tulataratisa; (vii) Kabuba-kadaraka; and (viii) Kaṇavaka. 36

Vijayabāhu in 1070 captured the Cōla fort at Maṇḍagalla, and, later, he restored Maṇḍavāṭaka tank; furthermore, he granted the village of Sirimaṇḍagalagāma to the Saṅgha. These names all stand for present Mahamaḍagala, a breached tank on the $M\bar{\imath}$ Oya about 2 miles north of Polpitigama (Codrington).³⁷

In an inscription of Āmaṇdagāmaṇi Abhaya (19-29) at Akurukeṭugala, $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles west of the 24th mile on the Ibbāgamuva-Polpitigama road, the site is named Bhatavabi Vihāra at Simijalika. ³⁸

Parakkamabāhu restored:—(i) Sādiyaggāma tank, present *Hātigamuva Mahavāva*, near *Polpitigama*; (ii) Rakkhamāna tank, present *Rakvānavāva*, near *Moragollāgama*.³⁹

Degalaturu-bim was a sub-district, probably in $Divigandah\bar{e}$ $K\bar{o}ral\bar{e}.^{40}$

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Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110) restored Pāṭhīna Vihāra, present *Peṭiyagala* Vihāra, 3 miles south of *Polpitigama*, a pre-Christian site. Other pre-Christian temples with inscriptions in this vicinity are *Talpiṭiyāva* Vihāra and *Nāgolla* Vihāra.⁴¹

The village Kihapuya is mentioned in a 6th century inscription at Galkäṭiyagama, 4 miles south-south-west of Polpitigama.

Kaṇṇikāragalla tank was restored by Parakkamabāhu and is present *Yelangolla*, 6 miles south-south-west of Polpitigama. On the rocky hill above was a monastery, now abandoned, founded in pre-Christian times.⁴²

In a 1st century inscription at the fairly extensive ruins at *Kottalakīmbiyāva*, 6 miles north of *Hiripitiya*, the place Mabirigama is mentioned.⁴³

An inscription of the 1st century at $\underline{Eriy\bar{a}va}$ names the old temple there Dipigala Vihāra. $N\bar{a}kolagan\bar{e}$ Vihāra, near $\underline{E}riy\bar{a}va$, and 4 miles east of Ambanpola, is called Nāgalla Vihāra in a 13th century inscription.⁴⁴

At $D\bar{a}gama$, near the 15th mile on the $Ibb\bar{a}gamuva$ -Polpitigama road, there is a very large cave called $K\ddot{a}b\ddot{a}llalena$ with pre-Christian inscriptions.⁴⁵

Dhātusena (455-473) built Mahaeli tank. Vijayabāhu I (1055-1100) restored Mahāheli tank, the same as Mahaeli, and identical with present *Māeliya-väva*, near the 12th mile on the *Ibbāgamuva-Polpitigama* road. In an inscription of Sena II (853-887) at *Nayindannāva Vihāra* at *Māeliya* the site is called Maeli-arama: a pre-Christian inscription at the same place-names the hill Ayibara-pavata. 46

At Pālu Hangamuva, 1½ miles east of the 11th mile on the Ibbāgamuva-Polpitigama road, is an extensive ancient site, with caves, ponds, a thūpa, and much stonework. The inscriptions at the site belong to the 4th to 6th centuries and one of them contains the placename Tamala.⁴⁷

At *Tittavela*, near the $7\frac{1}{2}$ mile on the *Ibbāgamuva-Polpitigama* road, there is a rocky hill with caves and pre-Christian inscriptions, one of which is dated in the reign of a king who was probably Vaṭṭagāmaṇi Abhaya. Other sites in this vicinity with pre-Christian inscriptions are *Talangamuva* Vihāra, $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles east of the 10th mile, and *Kōmbuva* Vihāra, $\frac{1}{2}$ mile west of the 8th mile on the same road.⁴⁸

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41. M. 60. 58; A.I.C. 37, 41; C.J.S. (G), II. 125.
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^{35.} M. 20. 15: 33. 48, 90: 39. 42: 41. 2: 68. 43-50; E.M. 22. 25; M.T. 616; E.H.B. 84, 122, 123, App. IB; A.S.C.A.R., 1895. 13: 1935, 10, para 43; U.C.R. VII, No. 4, 243, note 49: VIII, No. 2, 119, 123.

^{36.} A.I.C. 39, 100; U.C.R. VIII, No. 2, 122.

^{37.} M. 58. 44: 60. 49, 68.

^{38.} C.J.S. (G), II. 126.

^{39.} M. 68. 44, 46.

^{40.} E.Z. IV, 208.

^{42.} M. 68. 45; C. J.S. (G) II, 102, 125, 126.

^{43.} A.I.C. 46; A.S.C.A.R., 1932, 9.

^{44.} A.I.C. 42 (a).

^{45.} C.J.S. (G) II. 124.

^{46.} M. 60. 48; Puj. 27; C.J.S. (G) II. 123, 124.

^{47.} A.S.C.A.R., 1931-32, 11.

^{48.} A.S.C.A.R., 1933, 14, 17; U.C.R. VII, No. 4, 238, note 5.

 $P\bar{u}j\bar{a}gala$ is a large but not very lofty rock on $Neriy\bar{a}va$ estate, 2 miles west of the 8th mile on the $Ibb\bar{a}gamuva-Polpitigama$ road, with caves, a thupa on its summit and remains of ancient stonework. A long inscription of the 4th century has been engraved close to the thupa. 49

Ranagirimada Vihāra, I mile west of the $5\frac{1}{2}$ mile on the Ibbāgamuva-Polpitigama road, has caves with pre-Christian inscriptions: one mentions Abaya-nakara, and in another the donor was the daughter of a prince Uti. 50

At Mädiriya Vihāra and Aragama, near the 2nd and 3rd miles respectively on the *Ibbāgamuva-Polpitigama* road, there are pre-Christian inscriptions.⁵¹

Periyakadu Vihāra at Nālava, 3 miles north of the 7th mile on the Kurunāgala-Dambulla road, is called Ekadorika or Ekadoriya or Ekadora Rajamahavihara in inscriptions of the 2nd, 3rd and 6th centuries in situ. Place-names mentioned in these inscriptions are:—
(i) Tulahaka tank; (ii) Cigaravaliya tank; (iii) Talahapa; and (iv) Tamada. A pre-Christian inscription on a cave is preceded by the symbol of a cross, probably the emblem of the astrologers' guild. 52

An inscription of the 1st century at Mahamūkalanyāya, near Dolukanda, mentions Pubaga-nakara. 53

Aggabodhi I (571-604) built Sirivaḍḍhamāna tank, present Siradunna, 3 miles north-east of Vällava.⁵⁴

Uturu pavu Vihāra, 1 mile north of the 12th mile on the Kurunāgala-Dambulla road, and Nissölena Vihāra, near the 16th mile on the same road, have caves with pre-Christian inscriptions.⁵⁵

Sangamu Vihāra, 1½ miles east of the 14th mile on the Kurunāgala-Dambulla road, is an extensive site with many caves, a ruined thūpa, rock-cut steps, stone ponds, ancient stonework, and inscriptions dating from 2nd B.C. to the 12th century. Dhātusena (455-473) built Sangamu tank, the tank now called Māddakāṭiya below the Vihāra. The Sīgiri graffiti mention Sangamu and Sangamu-kelvaļa-arama. The 6th century inscriptions mention (i) Gonagiri; and (ii) Mahavalagama: Mahaval is mentioned in the Sīgiri graffiti. The 12th century treaty between Gajabāhu II and Parakkamabāhu is engraved at this Vihāra. 56

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49. A.I.C. 49; C.J.S. (G), II 191.
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The ruins at Ranagiri, near Dēvagiriya, $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-west of the 17th mile on the Kurunāgala-Dambulla road, extend over a hill and include several caves, one of which is semi-circular and very large while another preserves a portion of its moulded wall, thūpas at foot and summit, and stonework. There are several inscriptions from the 2nd century B.C. to the 7th century. In the later inscriptions the following place-names are mentioned:—(i) Kagaḍa; (ii) Maṭila; (iii) Agavatura; and (iv) Navagamiya.⁵⁷

Mahāsena (275-301) built Kumbālaka tank, also called Kimbulvana. This may be the same as Kumbhīlasobbhaka tank restored by both Vijayabāhu I and Parakkamabāhu, and perhaps identical with the large, breached reservoir on the *Kimbulvāna Oya* now known as *Nirāmulla*.58

It was 5 gav (about 15 miles) from Sankhanāthatthalī (identified by Paranavitana as present Pērādeņi-nuvara, 5 miles north-east of Dädigama in Kāgalla district) to Badalatthala, present Batalagoḍa. On the way were Pilimvatthu and Padavarasuññakaṇḍa. Badalatthala-padesa comprised Ihala Visideka Kōralē and Hāṭahayē Kōralē (Codrington). Vijayabāhu I fought a battle at Badalatthala. In an inscription of Queen Kalyānavatī at Batalagoḍa, the place is called Badalagoḍa alias Mangalapura in the Madhyadesa division of the Māyā kingdom: the inscription goes on to state that the Senevirat-piriveṇa in Badalagoḍa was restored and the village Sotemuna, present Hatamunē, near Galēvela, granted to it. 59

Siriyāla was a place between Batalagoda and $M\ddot{a}nikdena$ (south of Dambulla).⁶⁰

(C). Devamädi Hatpattu

Devamädi Hatpattu falls within the dry zone and lies to south of the Däduru Oya. There are many hill ranges and no large rivers: large irrigation schemes were not feasible.

Amaragalaka tank is mentioned in an inscription of Vasabha (67-III) at Galauḍa Vihāra, near Maḍavala, 2 miles north of the $5\frac{1}{2}$ mile on the Kurunāgala-Nāramalla road. In a later 5th century inscription there the site is named Megagalaka Vihara. 61

Galväva Vihāra, I mile north of the 14th mile on the Vāriya pola-Chilaw road, is a low rock-outcrop with a cave, on which there is a 1st century inscription, and a ruined thūpa close to which is a second

^{50.} C.J.S. (G), II. 191.

^{51.} C.J.S. (G), II. 226.

^{52.} A.I.C. 8; C.J.S. (G), II. 223. 224; E.Z. IV. 225; Sig. Graff. I, App. C.

^{53.} A.S.C.A.R., 1954, 39.

^{54.} M. 42. 8.

^{55.} C.J.S. (G), II. 194.

^{56.} Puj. 27; C.J.S. (G), II. 223, 224; E.Z. IV. 225; Sig. Graff. I, App. C.

^{57.} C.J.S. (G) II, 225.

^{58.} M. 37. 45: 60. 50: 79. 33; Puj. 24; Raj. 52.

^{59.} M. 58. 42-44: 64. 9: 65. 4; E.Z. IV. 80-82.

^{60.} M. 66. 19.

^{61.} C.J.S. (G) II. 211.

century inscription which mentions (i) Bamarahagama tank, and (ii) Madahata tank. 62

Yakkhadāsa mountain, present Yakdēsāgala, 8 miles north-north-west of Kurunāgala, is mentioned in a 13th century Pāli poem.⁶³

Giri Vihāra in Dakkhiṇadesa was built in the reign of Aggabodhi I (571-604). In a roth century inscription at Mädagama Vihāra, 2 miles south of the 20th mile on the Vāriyapola-Chilaw road, the site is called Giri Vehera, but here Giri may simply mean 'rock': moreover, the site has a pre-Christian inscription which proves that its foundation cannot be ascribed to Aggabodhi I. In inscriptions of the 7th to 9th centuries at the same place, it is named Kumbmugama Vihāra. 64

In a roth century inscription at $Gonn\"{a}va$, 2 miles north of the 8th mile on the $Kurun\"{a}gala-N\={a}rammala$ road, revenues from a land in the sub-district Mahaminilā-bim (the area around $Gonn\~{a}va$) were granted to the Mahāvihāra. 65

At Muhunnaru, Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110) fought a battle. Parakkamabāhu I restored Munaru tank. An inscription of Kassapa V (914-923) at *Nuvarakälē*, 2 miles south-east of *Heṭṭi pola*, names the place Muhunnaru.⁶⁶

Kālagallaka was between *Dambadeņiya* and *Yāpahuva* and is present *Kalugalla*, 3 miles south of the *Kolamuna Oya* and close to *Katupota*. Between Kālagallaka and *Yāpahuva* was the Kolabhinnanadī, present *Kolamuna Oya*. ⁶⁷

The sub-district around *Vällagala*, near the 4th mile on the *Vāriyapola-Hiripitiya* road, is called Panahapahana, 'the district of 50 hills', in an inscription there of the 1st century.^{67A}

A Minister of Vaṭṭagāmaṇi Abhaya (B.C. 89-77) built Tissārāma or Uttaratissārāma monastery. At Nuvarakanda, 4 miles north-west of Ganēvatta, there was a very extensive cave monastery in pre-Christian times, and one of the cave inscriptions records the foundation of the monastery, which is called Tisapavata Mahavihara, by Kaṇatiśa, a Minister of Pita Maharaja (Vaṭṭagāmaṇi Abhaya). Other places named in the many inscriptions at this site, ranging from 1st B.C. to the 6th century, are:—(i) Mukalugama; (ii) Digahalaka; (iii) Malaganaka, present Malaganē, 3 miles to the north-west; and (iv) Madaravilaya. One of the donors of the caves was a prince Duhita.⁶⁸

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62. A.I.C. 50; C.J.S. (G), II. 223.
63. E.Z. I. 136.
64. M. 42. 9; C.J.S. (G), II. 222; Codrington, Coins, 197.
65. E.Z. IV. 190.
66. M. 58. 42-44: 68. 48; E.Z. IV. 185.
67. M. 90. 9-11.
67.A. C.J.S. (G), II. 126.
68. D. 19. 19; M.33. 91; C.J.S. (G), II.126-128; U.C.R. VIII, No. 2, 126.
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Ganē Vihāra and Patahamulla Vihāra, at the 8th and 10th miles respectively on the Vāriya pola-Hiri piţiya road, were founded in pre-Christian times as the inscriptions at these two temples testify.⁶⁹

At Srīpura, present *Malasnē*, near *Hiripiṭiya*, Nissanka Malla (1187-1196) built an Alms Hall. According to a Prakrit text of the Jainas, Srīpura was in the Ratnāsaya district: between 1190 and 1200 the Cōlas landed at Salāvattoṭa, present *Chilaw*, and penetrated as far as Srīpura. The Sīgiri Graffiti mention Siripura. The place apparently had some importance in the 12th century.⁷⁰

Sēruvāva Vihāra, a picturesque rock-temple situated high up on the hill and mounted by steps, is 4 miles south of the 6th mile on the Vāriya pola-Hiripitiya road and was established in pre-Christian times on the evidence of its two cave inscriptions.⁷¹

Nātaganē Vihāra, 1 mile west of the $7\frac{1}{2}$ mile on the Karunāgala-Vāriyapola road, was also founded in pre-Christian times.

Maraluvāva Vihāra, 2 miles north of the 25th mile on the Kandy-Kurunāgala road, is attained by a steep climb over rock. There are inscriptions there of the 3rd to the 7th centuries and in the earliest one Ratavahanaka-mahanakara and a vihāra of the same name (presumably the site of the inscription) are mentioned.⁷³

(D). Katugampola Hatpattu

Kaṭugampola Hatpattu is, in its northern portion, in the dry zone, but its southern part falls within an intermediate zone between the dry and wet zones. It is not hilly but it is not climatically suitable for paddy cultivation under irrigation, and hence it has few tanks.

Paṇḍavāpi or Pāṇḍaväva, the breached reservoir now known as Paṇḍavas-nuvaraväva, 3 miles from Hettipola, was restored by Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110). It was considerably enlarged hy Parakkamabāhu as part of his plan of development of his principality of Dakkhiṇadesa and was the first Parakkamasamudda, also called Bāṇa or Bāṇa Samudra (Paranavitana). Close by Parakkamabāhu founded his new capital of Dakkhiṇadesa which he called Parakkamapura, the present ruins at Paṇḍuvas-nuvara. There is little doubt that the purpose of selecting this place in the dry zone as his new capital was to give emphasis to his irrigation and development projects and to facilitate their supervision. The ruins at Parakkamapura have now heen excavated and conserved.⁷⁴

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69. A.I.C. 44, 45; C.J.S. (G) II. 192.
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^{70.} E.Z. II. 178; C.J.S. (G) II. 191; J.R.A.S. (C.B.), XXXI, $_{3}85\text{--}386$; Sig. Graff. I, App. C.

^{71.} A.I.C. 38; A.S.C.A.R., 1933, 17.

^{72.} C. J.S. (G) II. 221.

^{73.} C.J.S. (G) II. 212.

^{74.} M. 60. 48: 68. 39-42; Puj. 34; E.Z. II. 116.

Setthivāpi, restored by Parakkamabāhu, is the present tank at Hettipola. 75

(E). Dambadeniya Hatpattu

Dambadeniya Hatpattu falls entirely within the intermediate and wet zones and had very few tanks for the cultivation of fields under irrigation. But it was populated from pre-Christian times.

There is a group of pre-Christian rock temples in the triangle Nārammala-Giriulla-Alavva, all bearing contemporary inscriptions. They are:—(i) Puhulē Vihāra at Aturuvala, I mile from the 20th mile on the Kurunāgala-Giriulla road; (ii) Maḍavala Vihāra, I mile from the 5th mile on the Giriulla-Alavva road; (iii) Humbuluvē Vihāra, near the 5½ mile on the same road; (iv) Häbbilikanda, ½ mile east of the 2nd mile on the Alavva-Nārammala road; (v) Māṭiyangaṇa Vihāra, near the 16th mile on the Kurunāgala-Giriulla road. In a 1st century inscription at the last-mentioned site, the monastery is named Mati Vihāra and a grant is made to it of Kaḍanaka tank and fields at Salaviya. 76

At Jambuddoṇi, also called Jambudroṇi and Dambadeṇiya, present Dambadeṇiya, Vijayabāhu IV (1271-1273) established his capital. He built the Vijayasundara Vihāra there which Parakkamabāhu II embellished. The distance from Dambadeṇiya to Polonnaruva is given as 5 yojanas, and Vijayabāhu IV improved the road: the actual distance is about 75 miles. Bhuvanekabāhu I (1273-1284) transferred the capital from Dambadeṇiya to $Y\bar{a}pahuva$. Sirivaḍḍhana or Sirivardhanapura, the birthplace of Parakkamabāhu II, was $\frac{1}{2}$ a yojana from Dambadeṇiya: a large Vihāra was built there. 77

(F.) Vaudavili Hatpattu

Väudavili Hatpattu forms one section of the foothills of the central mountain massif and lies within the wet and intermediate zones. Its northern area is fairly flat but is broken by numerous rock outcrops. The upper reaches of the Däduru Oya flow through it and the large Batalagoda tank was formed by damming this river.

At Hatthigiripura, also called Hastisailapura and Kurunāgalpāya, modern Kurunāgala, Parakkanabāhu II (1236-1271) built a Vihāra. Vijayabāhu IV (1271-1273) built a rampart and a moat round the town, and a large Image House in the Vihāra. Bhuvanekabāhu II (1291-1302) made the town his capital, and his successor, Parakkamabāhu IV, also ruled there and built a Tooth Relic Temple. At Vāpinagara, identified by Codrington as present Venāruvāva, just

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outside the town, Vijayabāhu I fought a successful action against the Cōlas. 78

 $Vilb\bar{a}$ Vihāra, close to $Kurun\bar{a}gala$, has a pre-Christian cave inscription.⁷⁹

Vijayabāhu I fled to Villikābā-raṭṭha after his defeat by the Cōļas: this is probably present $V \bar{a}udavili$ Hatpattu.80

The *Doraţiyāva* Sannasa of Nissanka Malla (1187-1196) names the place, which is 3 miles south-east of *Kurunāgala*, Doraţiyāva or Sudākarikāḍipanā-Doraṭiyāva in the Māyā kingdom, and fixes its boundaries as follows:—(i) on the east, Mānelvaluva, present *Māneloluva* (Codrington); (ii) on the south, Hiravalugoḍa; (iii) on the west, Govipala, present *Kompola* (Codrington); and (iv) on the north, Minileva.⁸¹

Pilagama is mentioned in a 10th century inscription at Äļavala, 6 miles east of Kurunāgala.⁸²

At the Ambaṭṭhakola cave in Malaya, 8 yojanas (60 to 75 miles) south of Anurādhapura, silver is said to have been found in the reign of Duṭṭhagāmaṇi Abhaya (B.C. 161-137). Here, Āmaṇḍagāmaṇi Abhaya (19-29) built Rajatalena Vihāra, present $Rid\bar{\imath}$ Vihāra. There are several inscriptions at this well-known temple, dating from 2nd B.C. to the 8th century, and the place-names mentioned in them are:—
(i) Relagama; (ii) Haragamaka; (iii) Pagamaka tank; (iv) Caṭanagamaka; and (v) Paṭagalaya. 83

Kumburuleṇa, near the 9th mile on the Rambodagalla road, was doubtless a part of the $Rid\bar{\imath}$ Vihāra entourage. Two of the inscriptions on the caves there are by the commander of the palanquin-bearers of Maharaja Gamaṇi Abaya, probably Vaṭṭagāmaṇi Abhaya (B.C. 89-77).84

Sites with pre-Christian inscriptions between $Rid\bar{\imath}$ Vihāra and the termination of the Rambo dagalla road are:—(i) $R\bar{a}gala$ Vihāra, near the 12½ mile; (ii) $B\bar{a}oruva$ Vihāra, near the 14½ mile; (iii) $Pitiy\bar{e}gedara$, close to the last-named; (iv) $Kand\bar{e}gedera$, near the 15th mile; and (v) Delvita, on Delvita estate, near the 14th mile. At the last-named group of caves, the inscriptions mention the villages Nelagama and Abatoṭa.*5

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78. M. 58. 42-44: 85. 62, 63: 88. 53-64: 90. 66; C.J.S. (G) II, 212.
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^{75.} M. 68. 43.

^{76.} C. J.S. (G) II. 131, 209, 210.

^{77.} M. 81. 15, 51: 85. 1, 4, 9: 89. 13, 14: 90. 34, 35: N.S. 22, 23; Puj. 37, 40; Raj. 63.

^{79.} C.J.S. (G) II. 212.

^{80.} M. 58. 29.

^{81.} J.R.A.S. (C.B.) XXIX, 32.

^{82.} C. J.S. (G) II. 213.

^{83.} M. 28. 20-35: 35. 4; C.J.S. (G) II. 179, 193, 218; U.C.R. VII. No. 8 238.

^{84.} C.J.S. (G) II. 194; U.C.R. VIII, No. 2, 122.

^{85.} C.f.S. (G) II. 216-218.

King Mahācūļī Mahātissa (B.C. 77-63) laboured at a sugar mill in Soṇṇagiri in Ambaṭṭhakola-janapada, the district around $Rid\bar{\imath}$ Vihāra: Soṇṇagiri is probably identical with Soṇagiri at the foot of which was Paṇcala Mahāvihāra or Paceli Vihāra or Pipphali Vihāra. Soṇṇagiri or Soṇagiri was probably present Ramboḍagalla. Moggallāna I (491-508) collected troops at Kuṭhāri Vihāra in Ambaṭṭhakola district.

The pre-Christian sites in this locality mark the early route into the lower montane basin of the *Mahaväli Ganga* around Kandy, namely the *Ridīgama-Molagoḍa-Teldeṇiya* pass.

Two inscriptions, circa 1200, at Koṭṭangē, near Delviṭa, mention:—(i) Kalama village, present Koṭṭangē, including the field Pilikumbura in the middle of Villi and bounded on the east by Kappalagoḍa, granted to the general for defeating the Cōṭas; (ii) Uḍusäla village belonging to the Vilgammula fraternity; and (iii) Gambāvasṭava, also belonging to the same fraternity, present Dambāla-Älla (Paranavitana).87

An inscription dated 1170 at Mädagama, 4 miles north-east of Māvatagama at the 18th mile on the Kandy-Kurunāgala road, mentions Sugalāvatīvāsa hermitage, the site of the inscription.⁸⁸

Diyavehera is mentioned in a 10th century inscription at $Pall\bar{e}gama$, near $V\bar{a}uda$, and Cakora tank in a 2nd century inscription at Yativila, also near $V\bar{a}uda$.⁸⁹

CHAPTER XIV

THE MĀTALĒ DISTRICT

The northern and eastern parts of the Mātalē District fall within the dry zone, while the rest of the district is in the mountainous wet zone. The Amban Ganga flows through it. Much of the area within the dry zone is hilly, but the Mātalē North Division contains several tanks as well as the headworks of some of the great irrigation projects which conveyed water to the vast extents of fields in Rājaraṭṭha.

Pilaviṭṭhika or Pillaviṭṭhi-raṭṭha, bordering Kālavāpi-raṭṭha, was a frontier district of the principality of Dakkhinadesa, and included, approximately, present Kiralava and Kandapallē Kōralēs (Codrington). Pilaviṭ is mentioned in a 10th century inscription. Encounters between Parakkamabāhu's forces in Pilaviṭṭhika district and Gajabāhu's forces in Kālavāpi district took place at:—

- (i) Kasāllaka, which was in Parakkamabāhu's territory because he restored the tank there: it is modern Kahālla, 1 mile west of Āndiyagala on the Galēvela-Kalāväva road;
- (ii) Taṭavāpika, which may be modern Taḥakiriyagama at the 31st mile on the Kurunāgala-Dambulla road;
- (iii) Jambukola, present Dambulla: Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110) restored Jambukolaleņa Vihāra: Nissanka Malla (1187-1196) rebuilt and embellished the Vihāra and his inscription in situ states that he gilded 73 Images at Dambulla-lena and renamed the cave Rangiri Dambulla or Suvarņagiri-guha; Dambulla Vihāra has numerous caves and pre-Christian inscriptions and was founded in 2nd B.C., and among the place-names mentioned in the early inscriptions are:—(a) Maṭukagama; (b) Rakitagamiya; (c) Uparikaḍa: there was a Vihāra named Uparimaṇḍala in Malaya in early times; (d) Nakoḍavika; and (e) Vatimasa;
- (iv) Vajiravāpi;
- (v) Nandivāpi;
- (vi) Pallikāvāpi;
- (vii) Kalalahallika, where there was a fort: the tank at this place was restored by Vijayabāhu I and by Parakkamabāhu I: Kalalahallika was in Dakkhiṇadesa and a suitable place for launching an attack on the Āļisāra (Āļahära) district, and may be modern Maḍahapola, 5 miles north of the 16th mile on the Kurunāgala-Dambulla road. Between Kalalahallika and Āļisāra were:—(a) Nandāmūlakagāma: to west of Nandāmūlakagāma and between it and Jambukola (Dambulla) was

^{86.} M. 34. 4: 39. 21; M.T. 624, 20; E.H.B. 124.

^{87.} E.Z. IV. 88-90.

^{88.} C. I.S. (G) II. 212.

^{89.} Ibid., 219, 220.

Navagāmapura, which name appears to be preserved in modern $Navagolla \ddot{A}la$; and (b) Karavāļagiri, present Karavilahēna, near $N\bar{a}ula$.

Velangāvitthika Vihāra was built by Saddhātissa (B.C. 137-119). A tank of the same name was constructed by Mahāsena (275-301). Mātuvelanga and Mātulangana (for the latter, see below) appear to be a composite of Mātu and Velangāvitthika: perhaps the two Vihāras were close together and merged at a later date. Mātuvelanga was near Sāmagalla, afterwards called Moragalla, and was in Malaya: there is a modern Moragalla, near which there are early ruins and a 1st century inscription, 6 miles north-west of the 27th mile on the Kurunāgala-Dambulla road. In early times this region was in Malaya.²

In inscriptions of the 2nd century at Gärandigala, 3 miles north of Galèvela which is at the 25th mile on the Kurunägala-Dambulla road, the following are named:—(i) Kadavataka tank; (ii) Tadapara tank; (iii) Hubiligamika; (iv) Pajinigamaka; and (v) Talakadanaka tank. In a later inscription of Kassapa III (724-730) at the same place, the villages named Mahabodeniya and Mihinnariya are mentioned.³

Dubalagama is mentioned in a 1st century inscription at Nilagama, 5 miles north-west of Galēvela. In an inscription of Moggallāna I (531-551) at this place, the temple is called Tisa-arami at Nilagama (the modern name has therefore come down unchanged for at least 14 centuries) and the liberation of slaves from the following villages is recorded:—(i) Hilisela; (ii) Gala-araki; and (iii) Ba-eli.4

Mahabalisa is mentioned in a 7th century inscription at Sīlavatgala Vihāra, 3 miles north of the 25th mile on the Kurunāgala-Dambulla road.

There are pre-Christian inscriptions on caves at Kandalama, near Dambulla, and at Ätābändiväva 2 miles north-north-west of the 39th mile on the Kandy-Dambulla road. The donors of some of the caves at Ätābändiväva were:—(i) prince Tisa, the son of Raja Abaya and grandson of Pacina Raja; (ii) prince Tisa, the son of Pacina Raja; and (iii) princess Raki, the wife of (ii). Pacina Raja literally means 'King of the East', but no ruler bearing this title is known from the historical Chronicles.⁵

Aggabodhi II (604-614) built Eṇḍēragalu tank and Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110) restored Eraṇḍegala tank, the same as Eṇḍēragalu. In an inscription of Nissaṅka Malla at Polonnaruva, it is stated that the

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rock on which the inscription was engraved was brought from Enderagala, doubtless the rocky hill of that name at the 50th mile on the *Dambulla-Habarana* road. The tank is now known as *Ināmaļuva* tank.⁶

In an inscription of Kassapa IV (898-913) at the ruined thūpa about $\frac{3}{4}$ mile west of $S\bar{\imath}giriya$, the site is named Mahanāpavu Vihāra. The Sīgiri Graffiti mention Mahanāpavu and Mahanāvuta. Mahanāpavu = P. Mahānāgapabbata. Aggabodhi I (571-604) built Mahānāga Vihāra, also called Mānārada or Mānāpav or Mānā-piriveṇa. It would appear that Mūgasenāpati Vihāra was re-named Mahānāga Vihāra: to Mūgasenāpati Vihāra was assigned the village Lajjika, and to Māhānāga Vihāra the villages Mātulangaṇa and Odumbarangaṇa.

Kassapa I (475-491) built his palace on Sīhagiri (Sīgiri) in imitation of Alakamanda, the residence of the god Kuvera, and dwelt there as a god-king. In his paper, 'Sigiri, the abode of a god-king', Dr. Paranavitana has dealt exhaustively with this all-important aspect of Sigiri. In the Niyyanti Park at Sihagiri the king built the Bodhi-Uppalavanna Vihāra, named after his daughters, and presented it to the Dhammaruci sect together with a park to the north of it. The Vihāras named Dalha and Dathakondañña on Sihagiri were granted by Moggallana I (491-508) to the Dhammaruci and Sāgali monks. Sīhagiri was the scene of the execution of King Samghatissa, his son and his Minister: moggallana III (614-619) who was responsible for this execution was himself slain near Sihagiri. The lower slopes of Sigiri were a pre-Christian cave monastery and one of the early inscriptions on the caves mentions the place Abalavi. Sihigiri-bim, the sub-district around Sigiri, is mentioned in an inscription of Sena II (853-887) at Viyaulpota, 6 miles north-west of Sigiri: the site of the inscription is called Sanguna-pansala. The graffiti on the gallery wall at Sigiri contain numerous place-names, the homes of the authors of the verses incised there.8

The Sīgiri Graffiti mention Kivisi, probably present Kibissa, near Sīgiriya.

In a pre-Christian inscription at *Pidurāgala*, I mile from *Sīgiriya*, the following place-names occur:—(i) Garadiḍa; and (ii) Kolagama. Paranavitana is of opinion that the thūpa at this monastery was probably built over the funeral pyre of Kassapa I.¹⁰

Close to and south of the 49th mile on the *Dambulla-Trincomalee* road, as well as at $Diganpatah\bar{a}$, $\frac{1}{2}$ mile south of the 56th mile on the same road, there are caves with pre-Christian inscriptions.¹¹

- 6. M. 60. 49; Puj. 28; E.Z. II. 134.
- 7. M. 42. 23, 24: 44. 97; A.S.C.A.R., 1911-12, 108.
- 8. M. 39. 2, 3, 14, 15, 41 : 44. 32-60 ; E.Z. IV. 179 ; J.R.A.S. (C.B.), New Series, I, 129 ; Sīgiri Graffiti, by S. Paranavitana, 2 vols.
 - 9. Sig. Graff., I, App. C.
 - 10. A.S.C.A.R., 1951, 24; C.J.S. (G) II. 227.
 - II. A.S.C.A.R., 1894, 8.

^{1.} M. 69. 8-12: 60. 48, 60: 70. 71-73, 163, 164: 72. 131-140: 80. 22-24; Puj. 35; Raj. 60; E.H.B. 68; E.Z. I. 135: II. 173: III. 105.

^{2.} M. 33. 8. 9: 35. 116: 37. 48; M.T. 616, 9; A.S.C.A.R., 1911-12, 121.

^{3.} E.Z. III. 198.

^{4.} A.I.C. 79; E.Z. IV. 295.

^{5.} A.S.C.A.R., 1955, 35; A.I.C. 34; U.C.R. VII, No. 4, 240.

Dakkhiṇagiri Vihāra was built by Saddhātissa (B.C. 137-119). Dhātusena (455-473) is also credited with its construction. Aggabodhi I (571-604) built an Uposatha House in Dakkhiṇāgiridaļha Vihāra which may be a different monastery. Kassapa V (914-923) granted a village to Dakkhiṇagiri Vihāra. The identity of Dakkhiṇagiri Vihāra is settled by the inscriptions of Sena II (853-887) and Sena IV (954-956) at Kaluḍiya Pokuṇa, near Kumbukkandanvela, 6 miles south of Sīgiriva, in which the site is called Dakiṇigiri Vehera. The Sīgiri Graffiti also name Dakiṇigiri Vehera. The inscriptions give the following placenames:—(i) Magama; (ii) Navāpahangama; (iii) Panagama; (iv) Bogamiya; (v) Mahamand; (vi) Vaļamāla; (vii) Vālipungonu; and (viii) Sīmburbamarā. 12

Mereliya-vagga or Merukandara-rattha was a district which often served as a place of refuge. It was the mountainous region of Vagapanaha Pallēsiya Pattu, Gangala Pallēsiya Pattu and Gangala Udasiya Pattu. In it was the village Vācavāṭaka, modern Vēvalavāva, 5 miles south-east of Sīgiriya. Between Vācavāṭaka and Polonnaruva was the village Nāla. 13

Buddhagāma-raṭṭha, an area corresponding to present Vaga-panaha Pallēsiya Pattu (Storey), was a boundary district of Dakkhiṇadesa. Buddhagāma Vihāra was endowed by Sena II (853-887). In the Sīgiri Graffiti the place is called Budgamiya and Budgamu. A 10th century inscription at Māṇikdeṇa, 2 miles west of the 40th mile on the Mūtalē-Dambulla road, records the grant by a resident of Koboyateliya of fields at Mahadeṇa to Budhgam Vehera (present Māṇikdeṇa ruins) at Ambamu. Vijayabāhu I captured the Cōļa fort at Buddhagāma. Parakkamabāhu I made Buddhagāma his first headquarters in his campaign against Gajabāhu II and restored the dam there. Near Buddhagāma was the Siridevī mountain, identified by Storey and Codrington as Nikulākanda, also known as Hiridevatai. 14

Pallavavāla was in Gajabāhu's territory and well east of Buddhagāma. From Polonnaruva, Mānābharaṇa advanced to Pallavavāla and there concentrated his forces for attack on Buddhagāma district.¹⁵

Ambavana-rattha or -padesa was the area between $N\bar{a}landa$ and $\ddot{A}lah\ddot{a}ra$ on both banks of the Amban~Ganga: it is still known as Ambana. Its northern portion or the area adjacent to and north of it was called $S\bar{u}ra$ -ambavana-rattha (Geiger). In Ambavana district were:—(i) Khīravāpi, present Kirigama and Kirioruva, $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles west of $N\bar{a}landa$; (ii) $N\bar{a}v\bar{a}girisa$, in a cool, hilly region, present

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Nävgala, near Yaṭavatta; (iii) Bubbula, present Bibilē, 2 miles north-north-west of Nāula (Codrington); and (iv) Porogāhālikhaṇḍa, between Nāvāgirisa and Janapada, either present Kalogaha-äḷa, 6 miles north-east of Leṇadora, or Porēkaragama, 3 miles north-west of Nālanda. 16

Janapada-raṭṭha was in Gajabāhu's territory of Rājaraṭṭha and immediately to east of Sūra-ambavana-raṭṭha. It was an area in Gaṅgala Uḍasiya Pattu and is first mentioned in the reign of Moggallāna III (614-619). In it were :—(i) Dohaļapabbata, between Janapada and Sīgiri; (ii) Maṅgalabegāma, called Māgalamb in the Sīgiri Graffiti, on the eastern boundary of Janapada, identified by Codrington as present Makul-ebē, between Puvakgaha-ulpota and Kōnduruva on the Aļahāra canal; and (iii) Yāgalla.¹⁷

Āļisāra-raṭṭha, the area around Äļahära in Gangala Pallēsiya Pattu, (Bell) was in Gajabāhu's territory. In Āļisāra-raṭṭha were:—
(i) Taļātthala or Taļākatthalī, present Talāgoḍa, near the 9th mile on the Nāula-Äļahära road (Codrington); (ii) Āļigāma, a stronghold by the river, present Āļagamuva, I mile south of the 8th mile on the same road; (iii) Kaddūragāma; (iv) Kirāṭi, present Hīraṭi Oya, 3 miles north of Āļahära (Codrington); (v) Vilāna, probably the same as Milānakhetta, as suggested by Codrington; (vi) Mattikāvāpi, possibly Kirimāṭiya, I mile south of Āļagamuva: (vii) Uddhakuraṃgāma; (viii) Adhokuraṃgāma; and (ix) Nāsinna. The great Āļisāra canal, the most important feature in the Āļisāra district, will be dealt with under Maṇihīra (Miṇṇēriya) tank. 18

An examination of the several accounts of the battles between the rival forces of Parakkamabāhu and Gajabāhu II in the 12th century discloses that the routes from Ambavana, Āļisāra and Janapada districts to Pulatthinagara (Polonnaruva) were as follows:—

- (i) Mangalabegāma (Makul-ebē)—Demeliyagāma—rocky country, which must be the Sudukanda range of hills—Khajjūravaḍ-ḍhamānaka tank, the same as Kaddūravaḍḍhamānaka tank, to which a canal led from Giritalē tank—Polonnaruva; 19
- (ii) Mangalabegāma—Hattanna (? present Attanakaḍavala hill, and stream, 4 miles south of Kōnduruva)—Khaṇḍigāma pass, doubtless a pass over the Sudukanda range of hills—Māsīviyala-Polonnaruva; 20

^{12.} M. 33. 7: 38. 46: 42. 47: 52. 61; E.Z. III. 266.

^{13.} This district was in Malaya. M. 39. 45: 41. 19: 44. 28: 47. 27, 58, 59 70. 282, 295, 296.

^{14.} M. 51. 74: 58. 43: 66. 19: 68. 45: 69. 9: 70. 311: 72. 178; A.S.C.A.R., 1908, 15; Sig. Graff. I, App. C.

^{15.} M. 72. 178, 220.

^{16.} M. 66. 85, 92: 48. 25: 69. 9: 70. 87, 99, 191, 311: 72. 178.

^{17.} M. 44. 55-61: 66. 110: 67. 25, 52, 53: 70. 15, 87, 95, 97, 103; Sig. Graff. I, App. C.

^{18.} M. 35. 84: 60. 14: 70. 106-112: 70. 113, 165-174.

^{19.} M. 67. 32-53.

^{20.} M. 70. 297-299.

- (iii) Nālanda (present Nālanda)—{ Lahulla Hattanna (see above)}—

 Khaṇdigāma pass (see above)—Koddhaṅgulikakedāra—Sīkaviyala (associated with Māsīviyala above)—Polonnaruva;²¹
- (iv) Mangalabegāma—Mihiranabibbila—Konduruva (present Kōnduruva)—Rajatakedāra—Polonnaruva;²²
- (v) Tāļātthalī (present Taļāgoḍa)—Rajakamatasambādha (Radā-vela, 4 miles west of Taļāgoḍa?)—Milānakhetta (probably the same as Vilāna above)—Daraaga—Mangalabegāma (Makul-ebē).²³

Kyānagāma was north or north-west of Mangalabegāma (Makulebē) and was in the Payikulam-Vēvalaväva area: the route from Kyānagāma to Polonnaruva passed through Mihiraṇabibbila (see above) whose position could be approximately fixed. Vikkamapura was to west of Kyānagāma and was used as a war headquarters by Parakkamabāhu: it was probably situated in the vicinity of Nuvaragalkanda, 8 miles south-south-east of Sīgiri. Nālanda, present Nālanda, was Parakkamabāhu's headquarters during the greater part of the campaign. 24

Panāvāli, present $M\ddot{a}da$ -ulpota, 6 miles south-east of \ddot{A} !ahära, is mentioned in a 10th century inscription there. 25

Melandura and Hinabi villages are mentioned in an inscription of Gajabāhu II at Kapuruveda-oya, 1½ miles east of Moragaha Ulpota in Laggala Pallēsiya Pattu: they were in Pihiṭi-raṭa. The name Melandura is still used locally for Vilgamuva-vasama. 26

At the Kumbukkandana ruins, 9 miles north-north-east of the 28th mile on the Älahära-Pallēgama road, there are several inscriptions of the 4th to the 7th centuries. The village Tabaraya is named as the seat of the district chieftain.²⁷

Bodhigāmavara-rattha comprised, approximately, Mātalē Pallēsiya Pattu (Codrington). The name is retained in modern Bōgambara, near Rattoṭa. The Sīgiri Graffiti mention Boyigam.²⁸

At the Demada Oya gorge, 1½ miles west of the 32½ mile on the Kandy-Dambulla road, there is an inscription of 1st B.C. in verse

- 21. M. 70. 214-237, 297-299.
- 22. M. 72. 220-272.
- 23. M. 70. 174-178.
- 24. M. 70. 167: 72. 147, 263.
- 25. E.Z. IV. 57.
- 26. J.R.A.S. (C.B.), XXVI, 59: XXIX, 63.
- 27. A.S.C.A.R., 1932, 10.
- 28. M. 66. 78: 69. 9; Sig. Graff. I, App. C.

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which says that the jewellers of king Macudi (Mahācūlī Mahātissa, B.C. 77-63) who came there for stone bricks went to their death.²⁰

In Mahāthala, Mānavamma (684-718) built Kadambagona Vihāra: Mahāthala is the same as Mahātila-padesa, the district around Mātalē (Geiger). In the reign of Vaṭṭagāmaṇi Abhaya (B.C. 89-77) 500 monks under the protection of a chieftain assembled at Ālokalena or Aļulena, present Aļuvihāra, and reduced the Tipiṭaka to writing: there are pre-Christian inscriptions on some of the caves at Aļuvihāra. In Mahātila district was Saraggāma, present Selagama, 3 miles north of Yaṭavatta. 30

Other pre-Christian sites with inscriptions in this vicinity are:—
(i) Nelwakanda, 3½ miles east of the 16th mile on the Kandy-Mātalē road; (ii) Ganēgedera Vihāra, at the 27th mile on the Palāpat-vela-Dodangaslanda road; (iii) Rusigama, 1 mile west of the 27th mile on the Mātalē-Galēvela road. There was therefore in ancient times a route from Hiriyāla Hatpattu in Kurunāgala district into the hills around Mātalē.

Lankāgiri district of Lankāpabbata-desa was an area corresponding to Laggala Uḍasiya Pattu (Geiger). In it was the village Ranambura, present Ranamurē, 5 miles south of Pallēgama (Codrington).³¹

Kantakapetaka-rattha was an area including portions of Mātalē Uḍasiya Pattu and Laggala Uḍasiya Pattu in Mātalē district and Palis Pattu West in Uḍa Dumbara (Geiger).³²

Girihālika or Girisālika monastery, in the inland country, was founded by Mahāllaka Nāga (136-143).⁵³

Maṇḍalārāmaka Mahāvihāra was in Kālakagāma, also called Kalāvela and Kallagāma-janapada: this was where the renowned thera, Malayadeva, studied in 1st B.C. and it was presumably in Malaya.³⁴

^{29.} I.R.A.S. (C.B.), XXXVI, No. 98; Sig. Graff. I, xl.

^{30.} M. 33. 100, 101 : 48. 3 : 66. 71 ; N.S. 10 ; Puj. 19 ; A.S.C.A.R., 1911-12, **121**.

^{31.} M. 66. 80: 70. 88; E.Z. I. 136.

^{32.} M. 69. 9.

^{33.} D. 22. 15-17; M. 35. 125.

^{34.} E.H.B. 66, 69, 70, 75.

CHAPTER XV

THE KANDY AND NUVARA ELIYA DISTRICTS

The Kandy and Nuvara Eliya districts are the most mountainous regions in the wet zone of Ceylon. Flat lands of more than a few acres in extent are absent: paddy cultivation is practised in the valleys and on hill slopes in terraced fields.

(A). The Kandy District

The lower montane valley of the Mahaväli Ganga around Gampola, Kandy and Teldeniya was populated in pre-Christian times as the inscriptions of that period at Bambaragala Vihāra (Teldeniya), Hāragama, Dūlvala, Vēgiriya (near Gampola) and Molagoda attest. The village Kolagama is mentioned in one of the Bambaragala inscriptions. The two passes by which this mountainous region was attained at this early time are marked by two ascending series of contemporary inscriptions, and they were:—(i) Aranāyaka-Gampola; and (ii) Ridīgama-Rambodagalla-Molagoda.¹

Yānleṇa, known by the same name today, is so named in a 14th century inscription near the 13th mile on the Kandy- $Kurun\bar{a}gala$ road. There is a pre-Christian inscription there. At $Galab\bar{a}va$ Vihāra, $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles south of the 16th mile on the Kandy- $Kurun\bar{a}gala$ road, are cave inscriptions of the 1st century.

Dumbara-raṭṭha, present *Uḍa Dumbara*, was in Pihiṭi in the 12th century and later in Māya.³

In Yaṭṭhikaṇḍa-raṭṭha, a district in *Uḍa Dumbara* extending over the *Teldeṇiya* and *Mādugoḍa* areas, were:—(i) Tālakhetta; (ii) Nāgapabbata, present *Nāpāṇa* (Codrington); (iii) Suvaṇṇadoṇi; (iv) Rāmucchuvallika, present *Rambukvālla*, near *Teldeṇiya*; and (v) Demaṭṭhapādatthalī. Dhanuvilika is present *Dunuvila*, 5 miles south-east of *Teldeṇiya* (Codrington).4

Majjhima-vagga, the district around Mädivaka in Gampaha Kōralē, Uda Dumbara, was in Pihiţi at the beginning of the 13th century (Codrington). In an inscription of Sahassamalla (1200-1202) at Kevulgama, 4 miles south of the 26th mile on the Kandy-Mahiyangana road, there is a reference to the land Välimada (presumably at Kevulgama) in Mändiväk, present Mädivaka.⁵

- 1. C.J.S. (G) II. 150, note 1: 227; Sig. Graff. I, Ivii; A.S.C.A.R., 1933, 16: 1935, 10.
 - 2. U.C.R. VIII, No. 2, 127.
 - 3. M. 70. 8; E.Z. III. 232.
 - 4. M. 70. 10-13.
 - 5. M. 70. 21; E.Z. III. 235: IV. 201.

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Vāpivāṭaka-padesa was a large area, probably between Nīlagiri and Majjhimavagga districts. Rerupallika-raṭṭha and Kosavagga were areas adjacent or close to Majjhimavagga: in Kosavagga was the place Sīsacchinnakabodhi.⁶

Vijayabāhu IV (1271-1273) restored the Nigamaggāma-pāsāda, present Niyangampāya, 1 mile from Gampola. At Sindhūravāna the same king built Vanaggāma-pāsāda and Abhayarāja-pariveṇa.⁷

In the reign of Vijayabähu I (1055-1110), three routes to Sumanakūta (Adam's Peak) are specified:—(i) the route past Gilīmalaya (Gilīmalē in Ratnapura district); (ii) the Rājaraṭṭha route past Kadalīgāma, present Kehelgamuva; and (iii) the path from Hūva (Ūva). The king improved all the routes and provided shelter and necessities for monks and pilgrims. His inscription at Ambēgamuva, near the 6th mile on the Nāvalapiṭiya-Hatton road, confirms the Chronicle. In it he states that he provided dānasālā on the Rājaraṭa road to Samaneļa rock: that he had a net put over the sacred footprint, enclosed the topmost terrace with a great wall in which there were gateways, and built a lower terrace from which people of low caste could view the footprint: and that he granted lands in the following localities for the benefit of the footprint:—

- (1) In Vilbā district, an area in Ambēgamuva Kōralē to south and south-east of Ginigātänna:—
 - (a) Kelagamuva, present Kehelgamuva;
 - (b) Tiniyagal, present Tiniyagala;
 - (c) Soragoda, present Horakada;
 - (d) The Badulla forest;
 - (e) Liyavala; and
 - (f) Udu-hō.
- (2) In Kaļangavela district, the area around $Ulapan\bar{e}$, $N\bar{a}valapitiya$ and $Amb\bar{e}gamuva:$
 - (a) Makulumula;
 - (b) Ambagamuva, present Ambēgamuva; here, at Ambaggāma, a bridge of 34 cubits (51 feet) was later built;
 - (c) Väligampola, present Väligampola, near Nāvala piṭiya; and
 - (d) Ulapanā, present *Ulapanā*: later, at Ullapannagāma, also called Kulapaṇa, a bridge of 36 to 40 cubits (about 55 feet) was built.

Nissanka Malla (1187-1196) made a pilgrimage to the mountain and left two inscriptions below the summit. An Arabic inscription of the 12th or 13th century containing praises of Allah and Mohamet also

- 6. M. 70. 21-29.
- 7. M. 88. 48-52.

occurs there. Marco Polo, about 1286, mentions the chains on the pilgrim path on the mountain. Parakkamabāhu II (1236-1271) visited the Peak and granted to it the land for 20 gāvutas (the Pūjāvaliya says 10 gav) around it: he improved the roads, repaired bridges and causeways, rebuilt the parapet wall on the summit, constructed a maṇḍapa over the footprint and secured the structure with chains to iron posts, and set up in the courtyard of the Cetiya an Image of the god Sāman; the route taken by the king was:—(1) Ğangāsiripura, present Gampola; (ii) Bodhitala or Bōtalē, where a bridge of 35 cubits (52 feet) was built; (iii) Khajjota-nadī or Kaṇamādiri-hoya, where also a bridge of 30 cubits (45 feet) was built; (iv) Ullapannagāma, present Ulapanē; and (v) Ambaggāma, present Ambēgamuva.*

(B). The Nuvara Eliya District

It is improbable that there were permanent settlements in the upper montane zone, above about 4,000 feet, prior to the 10th century. No earlier remains exist.

A 10th century inscription at *Harasbädda* in *Valapanē Division* mentions:—(i) Elasara in Kohombagama; (ii) Ambunora; and (iii) Talagama.⁹

Kākavaṇṇa Tissa's son, the prince Gāmaṇi Abhaya, went into hiding in the 2nd century B.C. in the district called Koṭṭamalaya or Koṭṭhamalaya. It is not at all certain that this name refers to modern Kotmalē. In the time of the invader Māgha (1214-1235) the Tooth and Bowl Relics were concealed at Kotthumala or Kotmalē in Māyāraṭṭlia, modern Kotmalē.¹º

CHAPTER XVI

THE KALUTARA AND COLOMBO DISTRICTS

(A). The Kalutara District

The Kalutara district is in the wet zone and has a heavy rainfall. The terrain becomes hilly within a few miles of the coast, rising to a considerable height in the south-eastern part of the district. To north of the Kalu Ganga the Kalutara district possesses a few remains dating back to the early centuries A.C., but to south of the river there is nothing so ancient: the interior, as we are told in the Cūlavamsa, was largely wilderness till the 12th century.

Kaṇha-nadī or Kāla-nadī is the present Kalu Ganga. Kālatittha, present Kalutara was the seat for one year (1047) of Vikkamapaṇḍu, one of the rulers of Rohaṇa during the Cōla conquest from 993 to 1070. He had left Ceylon through fear during the lifetime of his father, Mahālānakitti, who was also ruler of Rohaṇa. When his father was vanquished in battle with the Cōlas, he returned from abroad to assume the rulership of Rohaṇa but took up residence not in the productive and populated part of his principality but at its remote western extremity. After ruling for a year, he was defeated and slain by an adventurer, Jagatīpāla of Kanauj.¹

Parakkamabāhu II (1236-1271) is stated to have laid out a coconut plantation, one yojana broad, from *Kalutara* to *Bentoṭa*. The King's Minister built a bridge 86 cubits (129 feét) long at the mouth of the river, called Kalahōmuvadora, while another bridge 100 staves (750 feet) in length was constructed at Kadalīsenagāma or Kēlsēnāva or Kehelsēnāva, modern *Kehelhēnāva*, a few miles up the river.²

In a 5th century inscription at *Diyagama*, 3 miles up river from *Kalutara*, the site, now bereft of all ancient remains above ground level, is named Kalaka Mahavihara: this was the ancient Vihāra at *Kalutara*, and not the modern Residency, as is popularly believed. The inscription also mentions the market-town of Kaliṇiya (present *Kälaṇiya*): in early times this area to north of the *Kalu Ganga* belonged to the old division of Kalyāṇī-desa, originally the Kingdom of Kalyānī.³

Pahanbhunu-danaviya is mentioned in an inscription of Sena III (938-946) at Välmilla, near Pokunuviţa, and is identified by Paranavitana as approximately present Pāṇadura Toṭamuna and the adjacent

^{8.} M. 60. 64-66: 80. 24: 85. 118-121: 86. 18-36; Puj. 35, 48, 49; Raj. 60; E.Z. II. 215; C.J.S. (G) II. 21; SimBo 220; Yule, Marco Polo, II. 256.

^{9.} J.R.A.S. (C.B.) XXVI, 64.

^{10.} M. 32. 29; 81. 18; M.T. 462, 10; Puj. 38; Raj. 63.

^{1.} M. 53. 20: 56. 12.

^{2.} M. 86. 41, 44; Puj. 49.

^{3.} A.I.C. 85.

portion of $Rayigam\, K\bar{o}ral\bar{e}$: in it was Arungam-pelavaga which Paranavitana suggests is modern Aruggoda, 4 miles from $V\ddot{a}lmilla$.

Pokuṇaviṭa Vihāra at the $9\frac{1}{2}$ mile on the Pāṇadura-Horana road is an ancient temple: there is a fragmentary inscription there dated in the reign of Meghavaṇṇābhaya (302-322).⁵

Pañcayojana-raṭṭha or Pasyodun-vaga, present Pasdun Kōralēs, was, prior to Parakkamabāhu's rulership of Dakkhiṇadesa in the 12th century, a part of Rohaṇa. The region was a vast, swampy wilderness, and Parakkamabāhu drained the large swamps, leading the waters into the rivers, and made the land cultivable: he included Pañcayojana in his enlarged principality of Dakkhiṇadesa and made the Bentoṭa river, instead of the Kalu Gaṅga, the boundary between his territory and Rohaṇa. His troops stationed in Pañcayojana district entered Rohaṇa down the coast as well as over the Navadun and Moravak Kōralē hills. Bentoṭa was thereafter included in Pañcayojana.6

(B). The Colombo District

The Colombo district is in the low-country wet zone and is a well watered region with a comparatively heavy rainfall. There are large extents of flat land, hills being absent for many miles inland.

The Colombo and Kāgalla districts and part of the Kalutara district constituted the Kingdom of Kalyāṇī (Kälaniya) which had an independent or semi-independent existence in the 3rd and 2nd centuries B.C. until Duṭṭhagāmaṇi Abhaya in B.C. 161 united the whole Island into one kingdom. Uttika-desa or Uttiya-janapada was a sub-division of Kalyāṇī-desa in the very early period. Inscriptions of princes of the Kalyāṇī dynasty exist at Yaṭahalena and Lenagala in the Kāgalla district.

The Buddha is said to have visited Kalyāṇī, modern Kälaṇiya, on the invitation of the local Nāga king (uncle of the Nāga king of Nāgadīpa), and to have consecrated the spot where the Kalyāṇī Cetiya afterwards stood. The Sinhalese Chronicles say that Yaṭālatissa built Kālaṇi Vihāra and a Palace and reigned there, but the Pūjāvaliya later credits Kāvantissa of Ruhuṇa with the building of the Cetiya. The Pāli Chronicles are silent about the foundation of Kalyāṇī Vihāra, but the Mahāvamsa tradition that Yaṭṭhālakatissa (Yaṭālatissa) ruled in Rohaṇa and not at Kalyāṇī is confirmed epigraphically. There is no authentic account, therefore, of the foundation of Kalyāṇī Vihāra.

- 4. E.Z. III. 301.
- 5. C.J.S. (G) II. 207.
- 6. M. 57. 71:61. 35:68. 51, 52:72. 57-64:85. 81; E.Z. IV. 208.
- 7. M. 22. 12-14; E.M. 22. 44; U.C.R. IX, No. 1, 20.

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This Vihāra is said to have existed in the reign of Dutthagāmani Abhava (B.C. 161-137) and to have been occupied by 500 bhikkhus. A pre-Christian inscription at Mandagala in Hambantola district contains a reference to the family of Tiśa of Kalanika. Kanittha Tissa (167-186) built an Uposatha House in Kalyāṇī Vihāra, aud Vohārika Tissa (209-231) erected a parasol on the Cetiya. A 5th century inscription at Diyagama, near Kalutara, mentions the market-town (niyamatana) of Kaliniya. The historical Chronicles contain no reference to the Kalyāṇi Vihāra between the 4th and the 13th centuries. But the Pāli Commentaries inform us that the mouth of the river was known as Kalyāṇī muklıadvāra and that in Kalyāṇī district were:—(i) Nāgamahā Vihāra; (ii) Kalakacchagāma; (iii) Kāladīghavāpidvāra Vihāra; and (iv) Kāladīghagāma. Nissanka Malla (1187-1196) records in his inscriptions that he visited Kälani Vihāra and effected repairs there. Vijayabāhu III (1232-1236) restored the Cetiya which had been destroyed by the Damilas and repaired the eastern gate-tower, Image House, wall and other structures. Parakkamabāhu II (1236-1272) restored the 5-storeyed Pāsāda and the temples of the Recumbent and Tivanka Images, paved the courtyard of the Cetiya with stone slabs, and erected in front of the Cetiva a large mandapa.8

Hatthavanagalla, present Attanagalla, is reputed, without historical foundation, to be the place where King Sirisamghabodhi (247-749) gave up his life: the story, with variations, is narrated in nearly all the Chronicles. Goṭhābhaya (249-263) built a Vaṭṭa-dhāta-ghara (Vaṭa-dā-gē) on the spot where Sirisamghabodhi was cremated. Upatissa II (517-518) erected a 5-storeyed pāsāda with a roof of gilded tiles at the spot. Parakkamabāhu II (1236-1271) repaired the Vaṭa-dā-gē making it 3 storeys high, and built an octagonal Image House, as well as a Cetiya over the spot where his father had been cremated in the Vihāra premises.

Vijayabāhu III (1232-1236) built the Vijayabāhu Vihāra at Vattalagāma, present *Vattala*, a few miles north of *Colombo*. The place is also called Mahāvattalagāma, and Vijayabāhu IV (1271-1273) stationed his younger brother there to protect the seaboard.¹⁰

At Jayavaddhanakotta, present Kōṭṭē, on the great lake and not far from the village Dārugāma, present Dalugama, Alagakkonāra

^{8.} M. I. 63-76: 32. 51: 36. 17, 34: 81. 59-61: 85. 64-68; Puj. 15, 16, 39, 46; Raj. 24, 62, 63; E.H.B. 113, App. IB; A.I.C. 85; E.Z. I. 135: II. 119, 141, 177; J.R.A.S. (C.B.), New Series, V, 71, note 21.

^{9.} M. 36. 91-97: 85. 72-77: 86. 12-15, 37; E.M. 36. 97; M.ĩ. 671, 7; Puj. 23, 46; Raj. 50.

^{10.} M. 81. 58: 88. 22; Puj. 39.

built a new city, and Bhuvanekabāhu V (1360-1391) was the first king to make it his capital. 11

Epigraphical evidence confirms the historical evidence that the Colombo district was populated from times not later than the 2nd century B.C. There are cave inscriptions of pre-Christian date at Kōratoṭa, Pīlikuttuva and Maḍabaviṭa. The rarity of suitable rocky sites for excavating caves is the explanation for the paucity of inscriptions: in the adjacent Kāgalla district where such sites are many, the inscriptions are many. 12

Colombo, as a port, can be traced back historically to the year 949 when Muhammadan traders were settled there. In the 14th century it was the seat of a Muhammadan pirate with an Abyssinian garrison. 13

CHAPTER XVII

THE KÄGALLA AND RATNAPURA DISTRICTS

(A). The Kägalla District

The Kāgalla district is in the low-country wet zone and is a hilly region rising eastwards to the foothills of the central mountains.

Bell's 'Report on the Kegalle District' of 1892 is the foundation work for the study of the antiquities of this district. In the 2nd century B.C. it formed part of the Kingdom of Kalyānī (Kälaniya). Inscriptions of princes of this dynasty of rulers occur at Yatahalena Vihāra and Lenagala. Yatahalena Vihāra is near the 42nd mile on the Colombo-Kandy road and is a very ancient rock-temple, most probably identical with the Yatthālaya Vihāra of the Chronicles which was in existence in the reign of Devanampiya Tissa (B.C. 247-207). The inscriptions there name Raja Duśatara, who was the brother of Devanapiva, his son prince Siva, his grandson prince Dusatara, and his greatgrandson Gamani(..)tiva: and they record the grant to the Vihara of revenues from:—(i) Upaligama; (ii) Duśataragama; (iii) Patapagama; (iv) the town (nagara) of Nilaya; (v) Salivaya; and (vi) Cemagama. The royal epigraph at Lenagala, which is off the 12th mile on the Galigamuva-Ruvanvälla road, is by prince Duhatara, the son of prince Siva and grandson of prince Duhatara, and is a donation to the Sangha of lands in:—(i) Anamagama; and (ii) the town of Bata.¹

Other sites in the Kāgalla district where there are pre-Christian inscriptions are:—(i) Hunuvala Vihāra, 11 miles north of the 30th mile on Colombo-Kandy road; (ii) Ranvala, 3 miles north of the 41st mile on the same road; (iii) Māmpita Vihāra, † mile north of the 41½ mile on the same road; (iv) Alulena, on Karandupona estate. 1½ miles south of the 51st mile on the same road; (v) Danagirigala Vihāra, 2 miles south of the 55th mile on the same road; (vi) Hīnatibonē. 3 miles south of the 60th mile on the same road; (vii) Ambalakanda, off the Aranāyaka-Nārangolla road; (viii) Pādiyagampolakanda, 3 miles north-west of Rambukkana; (ix) Helapitalena, 2 miles east of the 30th mile on the Ambepussa-Alavva road; (x) Salgalvanaya, off the Galigamuva-Ruvanvälla road; (xi) Ambēpussa; (xii) Timbiri pola, off the 32nd mile on the Avissāvälla-Dehiovita road: (xiii) Dīvela; (xiv) Atugoda; and (xv) Pilimalena Vihāra, near Kitulgala. These many sites are evidence of a widespread distribution of population in the Kāgalla district in pre-Christian times: some of them mark an ancient route into the hills via Aranāyaka to Gampola. But there is a strange epigraphical gap. Although inscriptions of the

I. M. 22. 6-10; C. J.S. (G) II. 177, 202-204.

^{11.} M. 91. 3-9; N.S. 25.

^{12.} U.C.R. VII, No. 4, 240; Sig. Graff. I, cx.

^{13.} Codrington, S.H. 82.

pre-Christian period are fairly abundant, there is no surviving inscription in the district of the 1st to 8th centuries A.C. It is not inconceivable that with the opening up of large areas of the dry zone under irrigation in the early centuries A.C. the descendants of the pioneer population of the $K\bar{a}galla$ and Colombo wet zone districts migrated in large numbers to the more productive dry zone.²

In a 10th century inscription at $P\bar{a}rap\bar{e}$ in Kinigoda $K\bar{o}ral\bar{e}$, the villages $P\bar{a}rape$ and Vilba (present $Vilb\bar{a}va$ in Hat $K\bar{o}ral\bar{e}$) are mentioned.³

After his defeat by the Cōlas about 1067, Vijayabāhu I retired to Vātagiri, present Vākirigala in Galboḍa Kōralē, and there fortified the rock and kept the enemy at bay for 3 months: again, when the Vēlaikkāras revolted, he sought refuge with all his valuables in the same fortress. Vijayabāhu IV (1271-1273) built a palace on the summit and stored his treasures there for safety, fearing an invasion: he also built a monastery on the rock.⁴

Vīrabāhu resided at Punkhagāma as ruler of Dakkhinadesa and Parakkamabāhu I was born there: on the site of the house in which he was born Parakkamabāhu afterwards built the Sūtighara Cetiya, 120 cubits (180 feet) high. Punkhagāma has been identified by Paranavitana as present Dädigama; the ruined Cetiya is now known as Koṭavehera. In a 10th century inscription at Dädigama, the place Bilalviti is mentioned.⁵

Sankhatthalī or Sankhanāyakatthalī or Sankhanāthatatthatī was the capital of Dakkhinadesa when Kittisirimegha was its ruler: he was succeeded by his nephew, Parakkamabāhu I. The place has been identified by Paranavitana as present Pērādeņi-nuvara, near Hatnāgoḍa (the present Sinhalese form of Sankhanāthatthalī) which is 5 miles north-east of Dädigama. This is a good illustration of how a place of importance in ancient times has acquired a new name, while the original name survives in a hamlet, sometimes in the name of a land: it also illustrates the large areas of the ancient villages. It was 5 gav (about 15 miles) from Sankhanāthatthalī to Batalagoḍa in Kurunāgala district, and on the way was the place Pilimvatthu.

Mahāniyyāma-raṭṭha was the area around Māniyangama, near Avissāvälla, and it extended into both Kāgalla and Ratnapura districts.?

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Malabaṭuva, identified by Paranavitana as present Lambuṭuva, and Kitsenpavu were granted to the General Kit Nuvaragal (Nagaragiri Kitti of the Cūlavamsa) for his successful expedition to Burma by an inscription, dated in the year 1165, of Parakkamabāhu I at Devanagala, 3 miles south-east of Māvanālla.8

Ähunugalla is present Ävunugala in Paranakuru Kõralē; it is mentioned in a 12th century inscription there.

At Billaselapabbata or Beligala, present *Beligala* in *Ōtara Pattuva* of *Beligal Kōralē*, Vijayabāhu III (1232-1236) built a secure fortress, intending it to be a place for the safe concealment of the Tooth and Bowl Relics. The eldest son of Parakkamabāhu II (1236-1271) built a Pariveņa there. ¹⁰

(B). The Ratnapura District

The Ratnapura district can be apportioned between four climatic zones:—(i) the montane wet zone, comprising all the area in the Adam's Peak region; (ii) the montane dry zone, the hilly country above Kaltota and the eastern face of the Rakvāna range; (iii) the low-country wet zone, extending over the whole gem-bearing area, namely, Ahaliyagoda-Ratnapura-Pälmadulla-Kahavatta; and (iv) the low-country dry zone, comprising the greater part of Kolonna Kōralē. A more or less level valley joins the two lowland zones: but above them the mountains rise sheer, forming a marked upper peneplain. The lowland wet zone has the highest rainfall in Ceylon.

From very early times Ceylon was famed among the Greeks, Indians, Romans, Chinese and Arabs as the land of precious stones. Today, and for some centuries past, the principal source of Ceylon gems has been the lowland wet zone of the Ratnapura district. There is no evidence that in times gone by another source of gems existed which has since become exhausted. It is strange, therefore, that no remains, monumental or epigraphical, earlier than the 10th century exist in the Ratnapura gem-bearing area. There is no lack of those rocky sites which the ancient Sinhalese selected everywhere else in Ceylon for building their numerous monasteries. The route to Adam's Peak through Gilimale, which traverses the gemming area, is specifically mentioned in an inscription of the 11th century: the mountain was known and visited when the Mahāvamsa was compiled in the 5th century. A monastery could not exist, since the monks depended on alms and the produce of temple lands, where there was no settled population: where there were settled populations monasteries were established in great number from pre-Christian times, as the numerous ruins and epigraphs attest. The conclusion appears to be inescapable

^{2.} Kegalle Report, 69-71; A.I.C. 87; C.J.S. (G) II. 177, 190, 195, 201, 202; A.S.C.A.R., 1937, 9: 1952, 41, 43.

^{3.} Kegalle Report, 72.

^{4.} M. 58. 32: 60. 40: 88. 44.

^{5.} M. 61. 27: 62. 18: 79. 61; C. J.S. (G) II. 195.

^{6.} M. 63. 43: 64. 9, 22: 65. 4: 66. 9: 67. 78-95: 75. 5; A.S.C.A.R., 1955, 26.

^{7.} M. 72. 57.

^{8.} E.Z. III. 325.

^{9.} Kegalle Report, 76.

^{10.} M. 81. 33: 85. 58; Puj. 38, 46; Raj. 63.

that, although the *Ratnapura* lowland wet zone was always the principal source of gems—and gems were a major export product—there was no permanent settlement in that area. In all probability, gemming was a royal monopoly, carried out seasonally under the supervision of the King's officers, and to protect the monopoly permanent settlement in the region was prohibited.

Sumanakūṭa or Samanoļa (Adam's Peak) is not mentioned in the Dīpavamsa, the oldest historical Chronicle. The Mahāvamsa, compiled two or three centuries later, narrates that the Buddha visited Sumanakūta and 'left the traces of his footprints plain to sight': he spent the rest of the day at the foot of the mountain. It would appear, therefore, that the tradition about the Buddha's visit to Sumanakūta was not current when the Dīpavamsa was compiled. The two children of Vijaya by the Yakkhini Kuvanna are said to have fled to Sumanakūta and settled in that region: from them sprang the Pulindās. According to the Mahavamsa there were 900 monks on the mountain in the reign of Dutthagāmaṇi Abhaya (B.C. 161-137). Ākāsa Cetiya in Sumanagiri Vihāra is mentioned in the Commentaries and the latter has been taken to refer to Sumanakūţa. In the reign of Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110), three pilgrim routes to the mountain are mentioned:— (i) the route past Gilīmalaya, present Gilīmalē; (ii) the Rajaraṭa route past Kadalīgāma, present Kehelgamuva, near Ginigātanna; and (iii) the path from Hūva $(\bar{U}va)$. The king improved all the routes and provided shelter and necessities for monks and pilgrims. His inscription at Ambēgamuva, beyond Nāvalapiṭiya, confirms the Chronicle. İn it he states that he provided dānasālā on the Rajarata road to Samanola rock: that he had a net put over the sacred footprint, enclosed the topmost terrace with a great wall in which there were gateways, and built a lower terrace from which people of low caste could view the footprint: and that he granted lands in several villages for the benefit of the footprint. Nissanka Malla (1187-1196) made a pilgrimage to the mountain and left two inscriptions below the summit. An Arabic inscription of the 12th or 13th century containing praises of Allah and Mohamet also occurs there. Marco Polo, about 1285, mentions the chains on the pilgrim route to the mountain. Parakkamabāhu II (1236-1271) visited the Peak and granted to it the land for 20 gavutas (the Pūjāvaliya says 10 gav) around it: he improved the roads, repaired bridges and causeways, rebuilt the parapet wall on the summit, constructed a mandapa over the footprint and secured the structure with chains to iron posts, and set up in the courtyard of the Cetiya an Image of the god Saman. 11

Pre-Christian cave inscriptions occur at the following ancient sites, all in the dry zone section of Ratnapura district:—(i) Sankhapāla Vihāra, near the 86½ mile on the Pälmaḍulla-Ambalantoṭa road;

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(ii) Kirimakulgolla, about 12 miles south-east of Balangoda; (iii) Kūragala, high up above Kaltoṭa; (iv) Diyainna; and (v) Veheragoḍālla, near Galpāya. One of the cave inscriptions at Kirimakulgolla is by prince Mahaśiva, son of prince Kera. 12

Sapara or Saparagamu is present Sabaragamuva. The Māra mountains were probably in Sabaragamuva. 13

In a 10th century inscription at $Galp\bar{a}ya$, about 6 miles north-east of the 88th mile on the $P\ddot{a}lmadulla$ -Ambalantota road, the name Girimandula occurs and apparently refers to the region around $Galp\bar{a}ya$.¹⁴

Rakkhapāsāṇakaṇṭha was the frontier between Vijayabāhu and the Cōlas: it is either modern $Rakv\bar{a}na$ or a place north of Buttala district. 15

Cuṇṇasālā-janapada, at the foot of the Malaya mountains, was the district around *Huṇuvala*, near *Pälmaḍulla* (Geiger); in the district was Sarīvaggapiṭṭhi, present *Hiripiṭiya*, near *Huṇuvala*. 16

Parakkamabāhu's troops from the Avissāvälla area and Pasdun Kōralē entered and took possession of Navayojana-raṭṭha, present Navadun Kōralē, then a district in Rohaṇa, and, as pointed out by Codrington, a much larger area than it is now, extending over present Kukul Kōralē, Hinidum Pattu and Moravak Kōralē. 17

In suppressing the Rohana rebellion, Parakkamabāhu's troops at Doṇivagga, present Deṇavaka, made Navayojana district their next objective. From Navayojana they advanced to Kālagiribhaṇḍa, which Codrington has identified as the ancient Kalugalboḍa-raṭa, the mountainous country of Kukul, Aṭakalan, Kolonna and Moravak Kōralēs. In the course of subsequent fighting, actions were fought at:—(i) Guralaṭṭhakalañcha, present Aṭakalan Pannē in Aṭakalan Kōralē (Codrington); (ii) Pūgadaṇḍaka-āvāṭa or Pūgadaṇḍāvāṭa, present Danḍāva, between Kahavatta and Opanāke (Geiger); (iii) Tambagāma, present Tambagamuva, 8 miles east-south-east of Mādampē (Codrington); (iv) Bodhiāvaṭā, probably Bōgahavela, 2½ miles south of Butkanda; (v) Bhinnālavanagāma, present Binnēgama, near Butkanda / and (vi) Antarandāmahābodhikkandha, present Butkanda (Codrington).¹8

^{11.} D. 15. 48: 17. 14; M. 1. 77, 78: 7. 67, 68: 32. 51: 60. 64-66: 80. 24: 85. 118-121: 86. 18-36; Puj. 35, 48, 49; Raj. 60; E.H.B. 114, 150; C.J.S. (G) II. 21; E.Z. II. 215; Yule, Marco Polo, II, 256.

^{12.} C.J.S. (G) II. 197; A.S.C.A.R., 1952, 42: 1955, 35; J.R.A.S. (C.B.)

^{13.} M. 48. 129: 78. 8.

^{14.} J.R.A.S. (C.B.) XXXII, 178.

^{15.} M. 55. 22: 57. 67.

^{16.} M. 57. 46, 53, 57.

^{17.} M. 72. 57-62.

^{18.} M. 72. 57-62: 75. 77, 86, 91, 97, 144.

CHAPTER XVIII

THE CITY OF ANURADHAPURA

(A). Introduction

The tradition is that Anuradhapura was first founded as a village settlement in the second half of the 6th century B.C. by a Minister named Anuradha of the first, traditional King, Vijaya. Some years later a Sakka prince of the same name was overlord there: he built a tank, and to south of the tank, a residence. 'Because it had served as dwelling to two Anuradhas and also because it was founded under the constellation Anuradha, it was called Anuradhapura'. King Panddukābhaya is said to have made it his capital in the 4th century B.C. and to have laid out the town and its suburbs in a planned way. He solemnised his consecration with water from a natural pond there and thereafter deepened the pond and named it Jayavapi: he also constructed Abhayavāpi or Bayāväva (present Basavak-kulam) and Gāmanivāpi or Gāmanitissavāpi (probably present *Perumiyankulam*), The king's palace was situated within a walled Citadel or Inner City. Outside the south gate of the Citadel was the Nandana Park, and further southward, the Mahamegha Park: both afterwards became the domain of the Mahāvihāra.

The embellishment of the town with thupas and viharas began in the reign of Devānampiya Tissa (B.C. 247-207) but these earliest buildings were neither large nor elaborate. The embellishment proper commenced with King Dutthagamani Abhava, who ascended the throne in B.C. 161, and continued unabated to the closing years of the 10th century, a period of 1150 years. The City's two main architectural and art forms, the early and the medieval, were probably exhibited at their fullest development in the 3rd/4th and 9th/10th centuries respectively. The Chinese monk, Fa-Hsien, who visited Ceylon from 411 to 413, has given a description of Anuradhapura as he saw it, and he says that 'it was full of lay chiefs, dwellings of head-merchants grand, main streets and side streets level and well-kept, and between 50,000 and 60,000 monks in the City': he mentions also the rich decoration of the temples, the beautiful works of art and the great procession of the Tooth Relic. The walled Citadel or Inner City, within which was the Royal Palace, had an area of about 200 acres. No traces exist of an outer ring of walls enclosing both Citadel and City, whose area in the 10th century extended to nearly 20 square miles. 1

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The City of Anurādhapura was sacked on at least four occasions prior to its abandonment as the capital in the last decade of the 10th century:—

- (i) during the civil war in the first half of the 7th century: the rival princes despoiled the temples and shrines when they had exhausted the resources of the State Treasury;
- (ii) about 840 by the invading Pāṇḍyans who 'left the splendid city in a state as if it had been plundered by Yakkhas';
- (iii) during the Cola invasion in the reign of Udaya IV (946-954); and
- (iv) during the Cōla conquest and occupation lasting from about 993 to 1070: the Cōlas 'took all the treasures of Lankā for themselves'.

There were two subsequent periods of invasion and conquest, after Anurādhapura had ceased to be the capital, when the whole of Rājaraṭṭha was given over to pillage:—(a) from 1214 to 1239, during the rule of the Kālinga invader, Māgha, who, 'like a scorching fire utterly devastated the whole of Lankā', and (b) in 1240 by the Javanese invader, Candabhānu, who 'ravaged the country anew, laying waste all Lankā'.²

These depredations were followed by extensive restorations in the reigns of Aggabodhi IV (667-683), Sena II (853-887), Kassapa V (914-923), and Mahinda IV (956-972). Vijayabahu I liberated Ceylon in 1070 from Cola rule which had lasted 77 years, but the task of making good all the damage done by plunder and pillage was beyond his depleted resources, and the restorations made by him at Anuradhapura were superficial. When Parakkamabāhu I ascended the throne in 1153 he found that Anuradhapura 'had been utterly destroyed in every way by the Cola army: the temples were overgrown with great trees and bears and leopards dwelt there'. He restored the great thupas and a few other important buildings which were in ruin. Vijayabāhu IV (1271-1273) found 'a mighty forest grown up round the sacred places in Anurādhapura': he carried out some minor restorations. 993 (circa) was the fateful year of the great sack of the city: thereafter it ceased to be the capital, its great monasteries were no longer cared for, and the jungle tide soon began to overwhelm it. Some attempt was made to restore its principal buildings about 175 years later: another attempt, on a smaller scale, was assayed some 280 years later. Then its ruins relapsed again into forest from which the work of reclaiming them began in 1890. From the 7th century, Pulatthinagara (Polonnaruva) was sometimes used by the kings as a temporary seat of government during disturbed times, but Anuradhapura continued to be the capital and

^{1.} D. 9. 35: 13. 11-25: 13. 30-34; M. 7. 43: 9. 11: 10. 73-78, 83 102: 35. 98, 120; E.Z. I. 256; Puj. 2; C.J.S. (G) I. 52; Fa-Hsien's Travels by H. A. Giles.

^{2.} M. 44. 130-134: 50. 33-36: 53. 40-46: 55. 12-22: 80. 54-78: 83. 36-48: 88. 62-73.

the kings returned to it when the disturbances ceased. The predominance of Anurādhapura as the Royal City of Lankā began in the 4th century B.C. and terminated in the last years of the 10th century A.C.³

Several ancient sites at Anurādhapura possess an authentic history which goes back to pre-Christian times, but it would be entirely erroneous to date the ruins which now stand on those sites to the period of their original foundation. Buildings, then as now, needed repair and renovation. Moreover, architectural design and style were not static but underwent change and refinement. Ist century styles, which we now call archaic, were equally archaic in the 10th century. When old and decayed structures needed renovation, they were rebuilt in the latest architectural style and frequently lost all trace of their original form. Buildings of special sanctity were not preserved in original as antiquities, as is the modern practice: on the other hand, the latest embellishments were applied first to them. The Anurādhapura period of nearly 13 centuries witnessed varying phases and radical changes in architectural and art forms.

(B). The Mahāvihāra Entourage

The Mahāvihāra, also called the Tissārāma (Mahamevnā Tisaram in medieval inscriptions) was founded in B.C. 246 by Devānampiya Tissa and presented to the great Thera, Mahinda. Its territory comprised the Jotivana (previously called Nandana) and Mahamegha Parks, the area to south and south-east of the citadel. In his progress through the Mahameghavana, accompanied by the King, before the acceptance of the Mahavihara, Mahinda halted at the following spots:-(i) the picula (S. pulila) tree on the south side of the royal pavilion, where the Ransimālaka afterwards stood; (ii) a bathing tank, afterwards the Jantaghara; (iii) the gateway of the king's pavilion, afterwards the site of the Bodhi Tree; (iv) the Mahamucalamalaka, the site of the later Lohapāsāda; (v) the Pañhambamālaka, the place where gifts would afterwards be distributed to the Sangha; (vi) the Cātussālā, afterwards the refectory of the Mahavihara; and (vii) the site of the later Mahāthūpa. Within the confines of the Mahavihāra lay the most sacred sites in the city, the Bodhi Tree, Mahāthūpa, Lohapāsāda, Thūpārāma and Maricavatti: Thūpārāma stood in the Jotivana (Nandana) Park, the others in Mahameghavana (Mahamevunā or Mahamevnā). The Mahavihara was the seat of the orthodox, Hīnayana doctrine, but after the foundation in B.C. 80 of the Abhayagiri Vihāra, which became the centre of the heterodox, Mahayana doctrine, its supremacy was often challenged. The Chronicles (Dipavamsa, Mahävamsa, Cūlavamsa, Nikāya Sangharāva Pūjāvaliya, etc.) treat the history of Ceylon from the point of view of the Mahavihara. The rivalry between these two great monastic establishments was frequently bitter. In the reign of Mahāsena (275-301) a very serious crisis 130 JOURNAL. R.A.S. (CEYLON) New Series, Vol. VI, Special Number

developed. The King attempted to destroy the Mahavihara and forbade the people to give alms to its monks: in consequence, the monks were compelled to abandon the Vihāra for q years and to seek sustenance in the mountain region (Malaya) and in Rohana. The great buildings of the Mahāvihara were dismantled and the materials utilised for new structures at Abhayagiri Vihāra which 'became rich in buildings and was made stately to see'. A threat of civil war stopped further despoliation: the king affected repentance and made good some of the damage done. But soon afterwards he violated Mahāvihāra territory and built the great monastery Jetavanārāma in the Jotivana Park. Mahāsena's successors completed the rebuilding and restoration of the Mahāvihāra, but its supremacy was undermined. Fa-Hsien (411-413) says there were 3,000 monks in residence at the Mahāvihāra in his time. In the 5th century, Cetiyapabbata Vihāra (Mihintalē) passed into the control of Abhayagiri Vihāra. In the 6th and 7th centuries there were further crises in the relations between the two great Vihāras and in one controversy the Mahāvihāra was vindicated. In the 8th, 9th and 10th centuries the kings generally remained faithful to the Mahāvihāra tradition but bestowed their endowments in equal measure on Abhayagiri.4 In the Mahāvihāra were:—

(i) THE BODHI TREE. The received tradition is that the Bodhi Tree was a sapling of the Tree at Bodh-Gaya in India, that it was brought to Lanka by Samghamitta with the consent of the Mauryan Emperor, Asoka, and that it was planted at Anurādhapura. on ground consecrated by the Buddha, by Devānampiya Tissa in B.C. 246 in the presence of Mahinda Thera and a great multitude. A large, square, walled enclosure with 4 entrances formed the courtyard of the Sacred Tree. Sirināga I (189-209) restored the steps at the 4 entrances. Sirināga II (240-242) rebuilt the enclosing wall. Abhayanāga (231-240) built the stone vedīka: Gothābhaya (249-263) repaired the vedika and also erected an arched gateway at the north entrance, a stone throne at the south entrance, and 3 stone statues at the north, east and west entrances: further, he erected pillars with carved wheel-symbols at the 4 corners of the courtyard. Fa-Hsien (411-413) saw the Tree propped up because it was leaning to the southeast: he says there was a shrine at the foot of the Tree with an Image of Buddha in it. Every 12th year of their reigns, the kings celebrated a special festival for the Bodhi Tree. Dhātusena (455-473) erected 16 bronze statues of 'bath-maidens' and instituted a bathing festival. Mahānāga (560-571) constructed an irrigation trench round the Tree

^{3.} M. 78. 96-107: 88. 80-89; C. J.S. (G) II. 241.

^{4.} D. 13. 11-25, 30-34: 14. 20-42: 17. 89; M. 11. 2, 3: 15. 1-25, 174-177, 202-203: 20. 17: 33. 95-98: 36. 10-13: 37. 3-16, 29-39, 54-64: 38. 76; N.S. 11-16; E.Z. I. 35: IV. 66.

and Sena II (853-887) restored the trench.⁵ Within the courtyard of the Bodhi Tree were the following buildings:—

- (a) The Bodhi Tree House, first built by Devānampiya Tissa (B.C. 247-207). Dhātusena (455-473) rebuilt the Bodhi Tree House and decorated its walls with frescoes. Kittisirimegha (551-569) covered the roof of the House with tin plates, and Mahānāga (569-672) re-roofed the House and placed Images inside it. Aggabodhi II (604-614) had a well dug beside the Bodhi Tree House. Dappula (659) rebuilt the Mahā-Bō-Gē. Sena II (853-887) built a beautiful. Temple beside the Tree: presumably this was an addition to the Bodhi Tree House. The stone Image of the Buddha in the Bodhi Tree House is mentioned in an inscription of Mahinda IV (956-972); 6
- (b) The Bodhi Tree Temple. Vasabha (67-III) built the Bodhi Tree Temple which contained 4 Images. Vohārika Tissa (209-231) placed two bronze Images on the eastern side of the Temple. Jetthatissa I (263-275) built 3 gateways to it. Mahāsena (275-301) set up two bronze Images on the west side of the Temple. Dhātusena (455-473) added a Bodhisatta Temple and adorned its walls with frescoes. Aggabodhi I (571-604) built beside the Temple a stone terrace with a large oil pit. Aggabodhi VII (772-777) rebuilt the Temple solidly. Dappula II (815-831) restored and gilded it. Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110) repaired it.
- (c) A Thūpa and a Thūpaghara (Vaṭa-dā-gē) were built by the Queen of Vasabha (67-111);
- (d) The Hamsavatta, a beautiful shrine, was built by Sirināga II (240-242) in the sandcourt: he also built a pavilion of large size.8
- (ii) THŪPĀRĀMA or Tumbarup-vehera. The Thūpa was built by Devānampiya Tissa (B.C. 247-207), on ground said to have been consecrated by the Buddha, to enshrine the Buddha's right collarbone Relic. The core of the thūpa was of lumps of clay taken from the bed of the Abhaya tank (Basavak-kulam) and bricks were laid over the clay. The king also founded a Vihāra for the thūpa. A sapling of the Bodhi Tree was planted in the Vihāra. Lañjatissa (B.C. 119-110) added a stone mantling to the thūpa. The Thūpaghara (Vaṭa-dā-gē) was built by Vasabha (67-111). In an inscription of Gajabāhu I (114-136) the Vihāra is called Tubaraba. Goṭhābhaya (249-263) restored the Thūpaghara. Jeṭṭhatissa I (263-275) removed a large, stone Image of the Buddha from Thūpārāma to Pācīnatissapabbata

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Vihāra: later, Mahāsena (275-301) installed this Image in Abhayagiri Vihāra. Upatissa I (365-406) made a gold casing for the pinnacle of the thūpa. Dhātusena (455-473) carried out repairs. Aggabodhi II (604-614) completely renovated the thupa and thupaghara, his repairs extending to the temporary removal of the collar-bone Relic from the Relic chamber: the Relic chamber itself was renovated and many new reliquaries were placed inside. Dāthopatissa I (639-650) robbed the golden finial of the thupaghara and the umbrella of the thupa, broke open the Relic chamber and appropriated the treasures within to raise money to pay his soldiers. Kassapa II (650-659) restored the thupa. Manavamma (684-718) restored the roof of the thupaghara. Aggabodhi VI (733-772) repaired the doors and transposed the pillars of the thupaghara. Mahinda II (777-797) enclosed the thupa in a gold and silver casing. Dappula II (815-831) covered the thupaghara over with golden bricks and installed doors of gold. The Pandyans in 840 plundered the casing and the jewels, as well as the treasures inside the thupa. Sena II (853-887) restored the gold-plate casing, and Udaya II (887-898) also covered the thupa with gold-plate. Mahinda IV (956-972) covered the thupa with strips of gold and silver, and installed a gold door in the thupaghara. The Colas plundered the entire Vihāra during their conquest at the end of the 10th century. Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) restored the thūpa and the thūpaghara. Within or near Thūpārāma were:—

- (a) The Uposatha House, built by Bhātikabhaya (B.C. 22-A.C. 7). Āmaṇḍagāmaṇi Abhaya (19-29) added an inner courtyard and a verandah, and built a Pavilion studded with precious stones. Bhātikatissa (143-167), Goṭhābhaya (249-263), Aggabodhi II (604-614) and Mahinda II (777-797) restored the building;¹⁰
- (b) The Cittasālā was a 'Hall of Paintings' to east of Thūpārāma in sight of the Bodhi Tree, erected in the 3rd or 2nd century B.C. next to the site where Saṃghamitta was cremated;¹¹
- (c) Samghamitta Cetiya, on the site of Samghamitta's cremation, was built by Uttiya (circa B.C. 200);12
- (d) Dīghathūpa or Silāthūpa, to east of Thūpārāma, was built by Lañjatissa (B.C. 119-110); (see (m) below)
- (e) A Pāsāda for the Pamsukūlins was built by Mānavamma (684-718);
- (f) A Pāsāda was built by Udaya II (887-898);

^{5.} D. 16. 1-41: 17. 89: 22. 38, 47, 57; M. 19. 39-59: 20. 18: 36. 25, 52, 55, 103, 104: 38. 56: 41. 94: 51. 78: 1. 81: 15. 205.

^{6.} M. 15. 205: 38. 43, 69: 41, 65, 94: 42. 66: 51. 53-59; Puj. 31, 34; E.Z. II. 70.

^{7.} M. 35. 89: 36. 31, 126: 37. 31: 38. 67: 42. 19: 48. 70: 49. 74: 60. 62; Puj. 34.

^{8.} M. 35. 90: 36. 56.

^{9.} D. 15. 19-31: 17. 91: 20. 11: 21. 35, 36: 22. 5; M. 17. 28-38: 19. 61: 20. 17: 33. 23: 35. 87: 36. 106, 128: 37. 14, 43, 207: 38. 70: 42. 51-61: 44. 133, 138, 139: 47. 65: 48. 66, 140: 49. 81: 50. 35: 51. 128: 54. 42: 78. 107; Puj. 12, 21, 34; E.Z. I. 101, 211: III. 116.

^{10.} D. 21. 29: 22. 21; M. 34. 39: 35. 4: 36. 4, 107: 48. 141: 42. 58.

^{11.} M. 20. 52, 53.

^{12.} Ibid.

- (g) A Dwelling to west of Thūpārāma was built by the Senāpati of Kassapa IV (898-914);
- (h) The Behed-Ge (dispensary) at Tumbarab (Thūpārāma) is mentioned in an inscription of Kassapa IV (898-914);
- (i) The Dappula Dwelling, not far from Thūpārāma, was built by the Senāpati Rakkhaka Ilanga of Dappula IV (924-935);
- (j) A beautiful Parivena with a bathing tank, to west of Thūpārāma, was built by the Queen of Mahinda IV (956-972);
- (k) The Pala-balavi-mēdhāvi Almshouse, to east of Thūpārāma, was built by Queen Līlāvatī (1197-1200);
- (l) The Samghapāla Pariveņa existed in the reign of Gothābhaya (249-263).¹³
- (m) In the reign of Kassapa IV (898-914) a home for bhikkhunis was built in Padalañchana. Mahinda IV (956-972) repaired at Padalañchana the beautiful temple of the four Cetiyas which had been burnt down by the Cōlas. Dr. Paranavitana has identified Padalañchana or Padalasa with the four Cetiyas, situated to the east of Thūpārāma, built to mark sites believed to have been impressed with the Footprints of the four Buddhas of this kalpa. (M 52.63: 54.44; Padalañchana at Anurādhapura, by S. Paranavitana). The Silāthūpa referred to in (d) above was the smallest of the four Cetiyas at Padalañchana.
- (iii) LOHAPĀSĀDA or Lovā-maha-pāya, popularly but erroneously called the 'Brazen Palace'. The site was originally the Mahāmucala-mālaka and was consecrated by Mahinda Thera. Devānampiya Tissa (B.C. 247-207) built the first Lohapāsāda. A great, new building was erected by Dutthagamani Abhaya (B.C. 161-137); it was 100 cubits (150 feet) high and 100 cubits square, 9-storeyed, supported on 40 rows of pillars with 40 pillars in each row, and had 100 windows in each storey and 1,000 rooms in all: it was adorned with coral and precious stones, and its roof was covered with plates of burnished copper. This building, doubtless exaggerated in description, was destroyed by fire in the reign of the next king, Saddhātissa, (B.C. 137-119) and was rebuilt 7 storeys high. Bhatikābhaya (B.C. 22-A.C. 7) repaired it. Āmaņdagāmaņi Abhaya (10-20) added an inner courtyard and an inner verandah and a Pavilion studded with precious stones. Sirinaga II (240-242) restored the building to a height of 5 storeys. Gothabhaya (249-263) renewed the pillars. Jetthatissa I (263-275) raised the building to a height of 7 storeys and presented to it a valuable jewel. Mahāsena (275-301) completely demolished the building and carried away its materials to Abhayagiri Vihāra: the site was ploughed and sown

- with grain. Sirimeghavaṇṇa (301-328) rebuilt it, Dhātusena (455-473) renovated it, and Aggabodhi I (571-604) restored it. Aggabodhi IV (667-683) covered the central pinnacle afresh. Māṇavamma (684-718) renewed the roof. The Pāṇḍyans partly destroyed and plundered the building in the reign of Sena I (833-853). Sena II (853-887) rebuilt it and installed in it an Image of gold. Kassapa V (913-923) repaired it and crowned it with a pinnacle. Mahinda IV (956-972) repaired the bronze work of the Ruvanpahā of the Mahamevnā-mahavehera. The Cōlas destroyed the building at the end of the 10th century. Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) raised again its 1,600 pillars and partly restored it. 44 Attached to or close to the Lohapāsāda were:—
 - (a) 32 Pāsādas round it, built by Khallāṭanāga (B.C. 110-103);
 - (b) A Pavilion in the courtyard built by Abhayanāga (231-240);
 - (c) The Pañhambamālaka or Pānambamaļuva, a terraced space between the Lohapāsāda and the Mahāthūpa, closer to the former, where the body of the great Thera, Mahinda, lay in state and where gifts were distributed to monks.¹⁵
- (iv) MAHĀTHŪPA (Ruvanvälisāva). The site is said to have been consecrated by the Buddha and to have been marked by an inscribed pillar set up by Devānampiya Tissa (B.C. 247-207) at the upper end of the Kakudha pond. Dutthagamani Abhaya built the Mahāthūpa (B.C. 137) but died before it was completed: Saddhātissa (B.C. 137-119) finished the work remaining to be done on the superstructure and the Elephant wall and completed the plastering. The Thupa was 120 cubits (180 feet) high. Lanjatissa (B.C. 110-110) faced the terraces (berms) with limestone blocks. Kallātanāga (B.C. 110-103) made the sand courtyard which runs all round the terrace and is bounded on the outside by a wall. Bhātikabhaya (B.C. 22-A.C. 7) built two vedīkas (railings), one on the summit of the dome and the other round the topmost terrace, and renewed the plaster work. Mahādāthikamahānāga (7-19) widened the Elephant path, enlarged the sand courtyard and paved it with ornamental stones. Amandagamani Abhaya (19-29) reconstructed the two railings, one on the summit of the dome and the other at the base, and added a second umbrella over the existing one. The Thupa and its monastery are called Ratana-araba in an inscription of Gajabāhu I (114-136). Sirināga I (189-209) reconstructed and gilded the umbrella. Samghatissa (243-247) gilded the umbrella and put on it a ring of crystal, and fixed four great gems on the four sides of the tee. Mittasena (428) made a gateway (torana) through the Elephant wall. Dhātusena (455-473) restored

^{13.} D. 19. 13: 20. 11; M. 33. 24: 36. 115: 47. 66: 48. 141: 51. 129: 52. 16. 53. 11: 54. 50; E. Z. I, 161. 181.

^{14.} D. 19. 1: 20. 4-6: 22. 36; M. 15. 36, 205: 27. 1-10, 24-27, 46-47: 32. 27: 33. 6, 7: 34. 39: 35. 3, 4: 36. 25, 102, 124: 37. 11, 62: 38. 54: 42. 20: 46. 30: 47. 65: 51. 69-71: 78. 102-104; N.S. 10, 18; Puj. 11, 16, 24, 31, 32, 34; E.Z. I. 228.

^{15.} D. 17. 103; M. 15. 38: 20. 39-42: 33. 30: 36. 52; Puj. 11.

and gilded the umbrella, fixed round it a ring of crystal in which was embedded a great precious stone, and added decorative stucco work. Mahānāga (569-571) restored the stucco work, built the hatthivedī (railing ornamented with elephant heads), and renovated the paintings. Aggabodhi I (571-604) installed an umbrella of stone, gilded over and weighing 1½ tons. Moggallāna III (614-619) renovated the thūpa. Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) restored the thūpa, which had fallen into decay after the Cōla conquest in 993, to its original height of 120 cubits. Nissanka Malla (1187-1196) carried out repairs and erected upon the platform a stone replica of the thūpa. 16 Near the Mahāthūpa were:—

- (a) The Catussālā, a rectangular building used as the refectory, between the Lohapāsāda and the Mahāthūpa, closer to the latter, built by Devānampiya Tissa (B.C. 247-207) and restored by Vasabha (67-111);¹⁷
- (b) The Therānaṃbhandha-mālaka, where the body of Mahinda Thera was cremated. The Dīpavaṁsa says the place was close to and outside the east gate of the Mahāvihāra, but the Mahāvaṁsa states, on the contrary, that it was to west of the later Mahāthūpa. The spot was later called Isibhūmaṅgaṇa and adjacent to it, Uttiya (circa B.C. 200) built the Mahinda Cetiya to enshrine part of the Relics of Mahinda. To Isibhūmaṅgaṇa the bodies of holy men were afterwards brought for cremation. Dhātusena (455-473) held a great commemoration festival there in honour of Mahinda; 18
- (c) The Makutamuttasālā was built at the spot where the court dancers laid off their head-ornaments at the cremation of Dutthagāmani Abhaya (B.C. 137);19
- (d) The Rājamālaka, where Duṭṭhagāmaṇi Abhaya's body was cremated, and Ravivaṭṭisālā were to south of Mahāthūpa and close to it: the later Dakkhiṇa Vihāra has been identified as the site of the cremation;²⁰
- (e) The ground between the Mahāthūpa and Thūpārāma was filled and made level in the reign of Lañjatissa (B.C. 119-110);²¹

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 - (f) The Silāsobbhakandaka Cetiya, on a lofty spot to north of the Mahāthūpa, was built by Vaṭṭagāmani Abhaya (B.C. 89-77): this may be the present Lankārāma;²²
 - (g) The Chattavaḍḍhi Pariveṇa was south of and close to the Elephant wall of the Mahāthūpa and was built by Moggallāna I (491-508);²³
 - (h) A Bathing Tank was built by Mahinda II (777-797);²⁴
 - (i) The Mārā Hall, an adjunct of Mahasā (Mahāthūpa) was built by Mahinda IV (956-972);²⁵
- (v) MARICAVAȚȚI Vihāra (*Mirisvățiya*). The thūpa was constructed by Duṭṭhagāmaṇi Abhaya (B.C. 161-137) and in it he enshrined his spear which contained a Relic. Gajabāhu I (114-136) made a mantling for the thūpa. Vohārika Tissa (209-231) renovated the umbrella and built a wall. Kassapa V (914-923) restored the thūpa and all the buildings in the Vihāra which is called Mirisviți in his inscription. Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) restored the thūpa to a height of 80 cubits (120 feet). Nissanka Malla (1187-1196) carried out some restoration work at Mirisaviti. In the Vihāra were:—
 - (a) The Uposatha House, built by Dutthagāmani Abhaya (B.C. 161-137). Goṭhābhaya (249-263) repaired it and Kassapa V (914-923) restored it;
 - (b) A massive Pāsāda was built by Kassapa II (650-659) and restored by Kassapa V (914-923);
 - (c) The Candana Pāsāda was built by Mahinda IV (956-972) to house the Hair Relic: in an inscription of this king he records that he built the Raksā-ge for the Hair Relic. The original Temple for the Hair Relic was built by Moggallāna I (491-508): it contained paintings and statues of persons and of a horse: its location is not stated;²⁶
- (vi) Other Buildings in the Mahāvihāra. The other buildings in the Mahāvihāra included:—
 - (a) The following structures built by Devānampiya Tissa (B.C. 247-207):—Kālapāsāda; Sunhāta Pariveņa; Dīghacankamana; Phallagga Pariveņa; Therāpassaya Pariveņa; Marugana Pariveņa; Dīghasandasenāpati or Dīghāsana Pariveņa, with 8 great pillars; Jantāghara, a bath with a room for hot baths, to south of the Bodhi Tree; Raņsimāļaka, a space south of Jantāghara; a Sālakā House, restored by Sirisamghabodhi (247-249) and Udaya I (797-801); 27

^{16.} D. 19. 2, 10: 20. 1, 5, 6, 9: 21. 13-27: 22. 35, 38, 40, 48, 49, 52; M. 15. 52, 169-173: 20. 18, 19: Caps. 28 to 31: 32. 1-9, 28: 33. 5, 22, 31: 34. 39, 46. 58. 69, 70: 35. 1, 2: 36. 24. 65, 66: 38. 10, 54, 74: 41. 95: 42. 32: 44. 44: 78. 97; Puj. 17, 20, 34, 37; E.Z. II. 82. 119: III. 116.

^{17.} M. 15. 47, 206: 35. 88.

^{18.} D. 17. 106-109; M. 20. 42-47.

^{19.} M. 32. 78.

^{20.} M. 32. 79, 80.

^{21.} M. 33. 23.

^{22.} M. 33. 87; M.T. 447.

^{23.} M. 39. 32.

^{24.} M. 48. 142.

^{25.} E.Z. I. 228.

^{26.} M. 26. 13-20: 32. 26: 35. 121: 36. 33-37, 107: 39. 49-55: 44. 149; 52. 45, 46: 54. 40. 41: 78. 98; Puj. 16; E.Z. I. 51, 228: II. 83.

^{27.} D. 22. 55-57. M. 15. 204-213: 36. 74: 38. 16: 49. 14; Puj. 11.

- (b) The Shrine of the Guardian God of the City, existing in B.C. 161;28
- (c) Nivatta Cetiya, near the Kadamba river, on the way from the Nandana Park to *Mihintalē*, at the point where Mahinda turned back, built in the 3rd or early 2nd B.C.;²⁹
- (d) Elāra thūpa, built in B.C. 161 over the site where Elāra fell in battle and was cremated: it was outside the south gate of the Citadel and the site is within the grounds of the modern Hospital; 30
- (e) Katthahāla Pariveņa existing in B.C. 155;31
- (f) The Jalaka or Lañjakāsana Hall built by Lañjatissa (B.C. 110-110);³²
- (g) The Subharāja row of cells, built by Subha (60-67);³³
- (h) A Bathing Tank built by Tissa (B.C. 51);34
- (i) A row of cells facing west built by Vasabha (67-111);35
- (j) A Wall round the Mahāvihāra was built by Bhātikatissa (143-167);³⁶
- (k) The Kukkutagiri cells were built by Kanittha Tissa (167-186) on territory belonging to the Mahāvihāra and were donated to Abhayagiri Vihāra. Mahāsena (275-301) restored them. An inscription of Kassapa IV (898-914) says that the Mangul Pirivena was situated in the Kukulgiri row of Pirivenas and that to it was attached the Vädārā Pirivena;³⁷
- (1) 12 great, 4-sided Pāsādas were built by Kaniṭṭha Tissa (167-186); 38
- (m) The Puttabhāga Vihāra was in existence in the reign of Vohārika Tissa (209-231) and was on the way from the south gate of the Citadel to the Tissa tank; 39
- $(n)\,$ Hatthapaṇṇika or Sattapaṇṇaka Pāsāda was built by Vohārika Tissa (209-231); $^{40}\,$

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28.  M. 25. 87.
29.  M. 15. 10.
30.  M. 25. 72-74; M.T. 351. 24-27.
31.  M. 30. 34, 35: 51. 73.
32.  D. 19. 13; M. 33. 24.
33.  M. 35. 37.
34.  M. 15. 30: 34. 23.
35.  M. 35. 88.
36.  M. 36. 2.
37.  M. 36. 10: 37. 15; E.Z. I. 206.
38.  M. 36. 11.
39.  M. 36. 36: 37. 113.
40.  D. 22. 45; M. 36. 32.
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 - (o) Two Pavilions were built, one of stone, by Gothābhaya (249-263) who also laid out a tract of land for meditation exercises to west of the Mahāvihāra; 41
 - (p) Mora or Mayūra Pariveņa or Monarapāya, a Pāsāda 25 cubits high, was built by Buddhadāsa (337-365). It was dismantled and replaced by a Pāsāda 21 cubits high by Dhātusena (455-473) and was renovated by Mahānāga (569-571);⁴²
 - (q) The Ganthākara Pariveṇa which 'lay far from all unquiet intercourse' was the abode of the renowned scholar Buddhaghosa in the 5th century. Kassapa V (914-923) restored it; 43
 - (r) The Samghasena Dwelling House with large revenues was built by Sena I (833-853);⁴⁴
 - (s) The Senāpati Kuṭṭhaka (Kuṭṭhā) of Sena II (853-887) built the Senasenāpati Pariveṇa or Sen-Senevirad Pirīveṇa in the Mahāvihāra with great revenues;⁴⁵
 - (t) The Samuddagiri Pariveṇa, a splendid structure, was built for the Paṃsukūlins by the general of Kassapa IV (898-914);⁴⁶
 - (u) The Mahālekhapabbata House was built by the Chief Scribe, Sena, of Kassapa IV (898-914);⁴⁷
 - (v) The Meditation Hall (piyangala) named Bahadurasen in the Mahāvihāra existed in the reign of Kassapa IV (898-914); 48
 - (w) The Sakkasenāpati Pariveņa was built in the reign of Kassapa V (914-923). An inscription of this king refers to the Kasub-Senevirad-Piriveņa in the Mahāvihāra built by Sak-Senevi-Sangalnāvan; 49
 - (x) The Vajirā Pariveņa was built in the reign of Kassapa V (914-923).⁵⁰

(C). The Citadel or Inner City

Paṇḍukābhaya's lay-out of the town of Anurādhapura in the 4th century B.C. included a walled Citadel or Inner City with gates on the cardinal faces. Kuṭakaṇṇa Tissa (B.C. 44-22) raised the

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41. M. 36. 21, 102, 105.
42. M. 37. 172: 38. 52: 41. 100; Puj. 25.
43. M. 37. 243: 52. 57.
44. M. 50. 70.
45. M. 51. 88; E.Z. I. 169, 175.
46. M. 52. 51.
47. M. 52. 33.
48. M. 50. 82; E.Z. III. 105
49. M. 52. 61; E.Z. II. 43.
50. M. 52. 62.
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Citadel walls to a height of 7 cubits (10½ feet) and made a moat round them. Vasabha (67-111) increased the height of the walls to 18 cubits (27 feet) and built towers at the 4 gates. The later Sinhalese Chronicles state that the rampart was 4 yodun square and 16 yodun long, but these were exaggerations of a period when Anurādhapura had long lay in ruins: its actual dimensions, as the surviving remains indicate, were ¾ mile from north to south and a little over ½ mile from east to west, and it enclosed an area of about 250 acres. Within the Citadel were:—

(i) THE ROYAL PALACE. The first royal dwelling was the residence of the Sakka prince, Anuradha, in the 5th century B.C. Pandukābhaya took it over as his Palace and this building, doubtless improved and extended, was used as the king's Palace up to B.C. 44. (Devānampiya Tissa (B.C. 247-207) had a royal dwelling in the Mahameghavana: it had a picula (S. pulila) tree standing on the south side of it and at its gateway was afterwards planted the Bodhi Tree: it was donated to Mahinda together with the Mahāmeghayana). Kutakanna Tissa (B.C. 44-22) built a new Palace close to the former one and laid out the Padumassara Park in the Palace grounds. Vasabhā (67-111) embellished the Palace and built a tank in the grounds for rearing geese. Gothābhaya (240-263) rebuilt the Palace and erected a Pavilion at its entrance. Sirimeghavanna built a shrine at the south-east corner of the Palace to house a golden, life-size Image of Mahinda and Images of Mahinda's companions, and he decreed an annual celebration in their honour which was observed up to the 11th century. Upatissa I (365-406) built an Uposatha House at the south-west corner of the Palace as well as an Image House for an Image of the Buddha, and a pleasant garden surrounded by a wall. In the reign of Dathopatissa I (639-650) the Palace was sacked and burnt. It was rebuilt again but was once more pillaged and destroyed by the Pandyans in 840. Kassapa V (914-923) built the Kassapa Royal Palace in the Royal enclosure, as well as the Pālika-pāsāda in the same grounds. Sena III (938-946) made a costly flower-house in the Palace. The Palace was sacked and destroyed by the Colas in the last decade of the 10th century and was not rebuilt thereafter. Its ruins have not yet been excavated. Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110) built a Palace for himself in the Citadel but the building was an unpretentious one and he resided in it for a few months.⁵¹

(ii) THE MAHĀPĀLI or Royal Alms Hall. This building, was adjacent to the palace and here alms were distributed daily at the king's expense. Devānampiya Tissa (B.C. 247-207) built the first Mahāpāli. It was enlarged, restored or rebuilt by later kings, namely, Upatissa I (365-406); Mahānāga (406-428); Aggabodhi I (571-604) who installed a 'boat' of bronze; Aggabodhi II (604-614)

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who also set up a 'boat' for gifts of rice; Silāmeghavaṇṇa (619-628); Aggabodhi IV (667-683); Dappula II (815-831); Udaya II (887-898); and Mahinda IV (956-972) who rebuilt it after its destruction by the Colas. In inscriptions of the last quarter of the 10th century, it is called Mahapela and Purimālā Mahapela: one inscription records that the stone boat (gal-nāva) was the gift of Salavaḍunā. The ruins of the Mahāpāli have been excavated and conserved. 52

- (iii) THE DALA-DĀ-GĒ or Daļdāgē or Tooth Relic Temple. Devānampiya Tissa built the shrine named Dhammacakka within the Citadel. When the Tooth Relic was brought to Lankā in the reign of Sirimeghavanna (301-328) the king housed it in the Dhammacakka which, thereafter, became the Dala-Dā-Gē. The decorative work on its exterior walls included the figure of a life-sized elephant in stucco. Dhātusena (455-473) restored the building and had fine stucco work put in. Aggabodhi I (571-604) decorated the Temple with jewels. In the reign of Dāthopatissa I (639-650) the Temple was burnt down. It was rebuilt but was again destroyed by the Cōlas in the reign of Udaya IV (946-954). Mahinda IV (956-972) rebuilt it: one of his inscriptions in situ names and identifies the Dalā-Dā-Gē.⁵³
- (iv) THE CONVENTS. Devānampiya Tissa (B.C. 247-207) built the Upāsikā Convent for bhikkhuṇis and Saṃghamitta dwelt there for a time. In it were 12 buildings, in three of which were housed the mast, rudder and helm of the ship which brought the Bodhi Tree. A short distance away, Devānampiya Tissa built a thūpa and a thūpaghara: Saṃghamitta selected this site for a Convent for herself, and the king accordingly built one and it was called the Hatthāļhaka Nunnery. When Kuṭakaṇṇa Tissa (B.C. 44-22) and Vasabha (67-111) altered the walls of the Citadel, a part of the Hatthāļhaka Nunnery came to be outside the walls. Neither the Upāsikā nor the Hatthāļhaka Nunnery is mentioned again, but other Convents are named, some of them specifically as within the Citadel. It may be that some of these later Convents were additions to or restorations of the two original Convents. They were:—
 - (a) Dantegeha Convent, built by Kuṭakaṇṇa Tissa (B.C. 44-22) on land owned by the royal family: he built also a bath for the bhikkhuṇis;
 - (b) The Abhaya and Uttara Convents were built by Mahāsena (275-301): it is likely that these were in the Abhayagiri Entourage;

^{51.} D. 20. 33, 34; M. 9. 11: 10. 73-75, 85, 90: 15. 27, 32-35: 34. 33, 34, 65: 35. 96, 97: 36. 99: 37. 86-90, 200-201: 44. 134: 50. 33: 52. 66: 53: 53. 35: 55. 19-22; Puj. 21.

^{52.} D. 17. 92; M. 20. 23: 37. 211: 42. 33, 67: 44. 65: 46. 3: 49. 78: 51. 132: 54. 45; E.Z. I. 228: III. 133.

^{53.} M. 37. 92-97: 38. 8, 70, 72: 42. 33: 44. 134: 54. 45; E.Z. I. 120; A.S.M III, 14.

- (c) The Rājinī shelter for nuns was built by Moggallāna I (491-508);
- (d) The Silāmegha Home for bhikkhuṇis, in which Mahinda II (777-797) placed a Bodhisatta Image of silver. Udaya I (797-801) restored it;
- (e) Mahindārāma Convent built by Mahinda I (730-733): one boundary of .it was Nagaragalla. It is mentioned in an inscription of Kassapa IV (898-914) as the Mihind-aram Nunnery standing on the Mangul-maha-veya of the Inner City (Citadel);
- (f) Tissārāma Convent built in the reign of Kassapa IV (898-914): its Nuns were specially entrusted with the care of the Bodhi Tree at Maricavaṭṭi Vihāra. An inscription of Kassapa V (918) refers to the building of the Tisaram Nunnery on the Mangul-maha-veya by the general Sen;
- (g) The Nālaram Nunnery was founded by the Chief Secretary, Sena, of Kassapa IV (898-914);
- (h) The Mahāmallaka Convent, as well as a Mahapela (Mahāpāli) for bhikkhuņis, was built by Mahinda IV (956-972).⁵⁴
- (v) The House for the book Dhammadhātu which was brought here in the reign of Silākāla (518-531) was in the Citadel.⁵⁵
- (vi) HOSPITALS and Medical Halls. Hospitals and Medical Halls were built:—
 - (a) by Sen Senevirad on the opposite side of the road (Mangul-maha-veya) to the Mihindaram Nunnery in 909;
 - (b) on the Mangul-maha-veya and near the south gate in 917. ⁵⁶
- (vii) THE DHAMMASANGANI HOUSE or Damsangunugē or Dahamsangungē was built by Kassapa V (914-923) to house the sacred book of that name. The Cōlas destroyed the building in 948 and Mahinda IV (956-972) rebuilt it.⁵⁷

(D). The Abhayagiri Vihāra Entourage

The Abhayagiri Vihāra (also known as Uttara, Abhayauttara, Abhayaturā, Abāgiri, Abagiri-mahavihara, Apahayagara, Abahaygiri and Bagirivehera) was founded in March, B.C. 89, by king Vaṭṭa-gāmaṇi Abhaya who demolished a Nigaṇṭha (Jain) shrine called

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Titthārāma, built by Pandukābhaya in the 4th century B.C., and erected, on its site, a Vihāra of 12 cells; Abhayagiri is a combination of the king's name, Abhaya, with that of the Jain ascetic, Giri, who lived in the Tittharama. Not long after its foundation Abhavagiri Vihāra became the seat of the heterodox. Mahāvāna doctrines and consequently came into conflict and rivalry with the orthodox Mahāvihāra. It had its triumphs and its reverses. Its greatest triumph was in the reign of Mahāsena (275-301) when the beautiful temples of the Mahavihara were, on the king's orders, dismantled and re-erected at Abhayagiri which 'became rich in buildings and was made stately to see'. Fa-Hsien (411-413) says that there were 5,000 monks in residence at Abhavagiri in his time; he describes the thupa, the beautiful Image of the Buddha, and the annual procession of the Tooth Relic from the Palace to the Vihāra. In the 5th century, Cetiyapabbata Vihāra (Mihintalē) passed into the control of Abhayagiri Vihāra. Another serious controversy between Abhayagiri Vihāra and the Mahāvihāra in the 6th century resulted in the vindication of the Mahavihara. In the 8th, 9th and 10th centuries there was little friction between the two great monastic establishments, and the kings appear to have bestowed their gifts fairly evenly between the two. The Abhayagiri entourage comprised:

> (i) THE THŪPA. Dr. Paranavitana renders D 19.17 as follows, 'He established the Abhayagiri (monastery and) the Silāthūpa which is within (its) Četiva' and adds 'what the text connotes is that Vattagāmani Abhava (B.C. 89-77) built the Silacetiva which forms the core of the Abhayagiri Dāgāba, the huge pile built enclosing this being the work of later hands'. (Padalanchana at Anuradhapura, by S. Paranavitana). Gajabahu I (114-136) enlarged the Thupa and built Adimukha (Vestibules) to the 4 gateways. Kanittha Tissa (167-186) built the Vāhalkadas and made grants to Utaramaĥa-ceta. Vohārika Tissa (209-231) renovated the umbrella. Fa-Hsien (411-413) says the Thupa was 400 feet high and decorated with gold and silver. Mittasena (428) made a gateway (torana) through the Elephant wall. Dhātusena (455-473) restored and gilded the umbrella, affixed around it a ring of crystal in which was embedded a great precious stone, and added decorative stucco work. Mahānāga (569-571) built the hatthived (railing ornamented with elephant heads) and renovated the ring of crystal, the stucco work and the paintings. Aggabodhi I (571-604) set up a golden, bejewelled, umbrella-shaped spire. Moggallana III (614-619) repaired the Thupa, and so did Kassapa IV (898-914). Sena III (938-946) made at great cost a stone paving round the Thupa. Mahinda IV (956-972)

^{54.} M. 19. 68-71, 77-84: 20. 21, 22: 34. 36: 35. 96, 97: 37. 43: 39. 43: 48. 36, 139: 49. 25: 52. 24: 54. 47; M.T. 411, 13; E.Z. I. 228: II. 25, 38.

^{55.} M. 41. 37-40.

^{56.} M. 52. 57; E.Z. I. 51: II. 25.

^{57.} M. 52. 50: 54. 45; E.Z. I. 228: III. 133, 137,

renewed the brickwork at Abayaturā-maha-sā. Following neglect and partial collapse during and after the Cōļa conquest, Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) restored the Thūpa to a height of 160 cubits (240 feet).⁵⁸

- (ii) SOMĀRĀMA or Maņisomārāma monastery was built by Vaṭṭagāmaṇi Abhaya (B.C. 89-77) in honour of his Queen, Somadevī. Kaniṭṭha Tissa (167-186) added to it a great Pariveṇa as well as a thūpaghara (Vaṭa-dā-gē). Goṭhābhaya (249-263) restored the thūpaghara and the Uposatha House.⁵⁹
- (iii) The Subharāja cells were built by Subha (60-67).60
- (iv) The RATANAPĀSĀDA, the Uposatha House of the Abhayagiri Vihāra (corresponding to the Lohapāsāda of the Mahāvihāra) was built by Kanittha Tissa (167-186). Mahinda II (777-797) rebuilt it on a splendid scale, 'many-storeyed, like unto a heavenly mansion': in it he housed a golden Image of the Buddha. This Image and other treasures were carried away by the conquering Pāṇḍyans in the reign of Sena I (833-853), but they were recovered and replaced by Sena II (853-887). In inscriptions of Kassapa V (913-923) and of Mahinda IV (956-972) the building is called Ruvanmaha-pahā.61
- (v) Kaniṭṭha Tissa (167-186) built a wall and a large Pariveṇa. 62
- (vi) A Pavilion was built by Vohārika Tissa (209-231).63
- (vii) THE IMAGE HOUSE was built by Mahāsena (275-301) who installed within it a large, stone Image of the Buddha which had originally been set up in Thūpārāma and was later removed to Pācīnatissapabbata Vihāra. It was probably this Image of which Fa-Hsien (411-413) makes special mention. Dhātusena (455-473) made a Shrine for the Image, put in two precious stones as eyes, dressed the hair with blue gems and made a diadem of rays and a golden garment. Silāmeghavanna (610-628)

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restored the Image House. In the reign of Sena I (833-853) the Pāṇḍyans carried away the precious stones in the eyes of the Image. Sena II (853-887) restored the Image House, and his Queen placed a dark-blue, jewel diadem on the Image. The Maha Pilimage at Abhayagiri Vihāra is mentioned in two inscriptions of the 10th century. Mahinda IV (956-972) caused the eyes of the auspicious, colossal, stone Image to be set with sapphires: he also set the great stone statue of Mahinda with rubies and made a network of gold for its feet. Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) restored the Image House. 64

- (viii) THE BODHI TREE TEMPLE was built by Mahāsena (275-301). Sirimeghavaṇṇa (301-328) built a stone terrace and a wall round the Bodhi Tree. Silākāla (518-631) set up beside the Bodhi Tree the Kunta throne which he brought away from Jetavanārāma. The Maha-Bo-Ge is mentioned in an inscription of Kassapa V (914-923). Mahinda IV (956-972) repaired it.65
- (ix) Mahāsena (275-301) also built a Relic Hall and a 4-sided Hall. 66
- (x) Aggabodhi I (571-604) built a large Bathing Tank. 67
- (xi) The Dāṭhāggabodhi House and the Kapālanāga Vihāra were built in the reign of Aggabodhi II (604-614).68
- (xii) THE KAPPŪRA or Kapārā Pariveņa was built by Dāthopatissa II (659-667). Aggabodhi IV (667-683) added a Pāsāda and Sena I (833-853) built a cell. Inscriptions of the 10th century refer to Maha-Kapārā and Kuḍā-kapārā Piriveņ and to the Kapārāmuļa fraternity at Abhayagiri Vihāra. Kassapa V (914-923) built for them the Silāmeghapabbata or Salamey-vanpavu Vihāra. The Pubbārāma or Purvaram Vihāra belonged to the Kapārā fraternity. An inscription of Mahinda V (982-993) names the Kapārā-ārāma and identifies the site. The daughter of Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110) built a massive Image House in the Kappūramūlā Vihāra.69

^{58.} D. 19. 14, 17: 22. 13, 39, 40; M. 33. 42 44, 80-86, 95-98: 35. 119, 120: 36. 33. 34: 37. 3-16: 38. 10, 54, 74: 41. 95: 42. 31: 44. 44: 53. 33: 78. 98; N.S. 11-16; Puj. 31, 34; E.Z. I. 98, 225, 226, 238, 239, 256: II. 19: IV. 141, 282.

^{59.} M. 33. 84-86: 36. 8, 9, 107.

^{60.} M. 35. 37.

^{61.} D. 22. 23; M. 36. 7: 48. 135-138: 50. 34: 51. 40, 41, 49; E.Z. I. 55, 226 239.

^{62.} M. 36.8.

^{63.} M. 36. 31.

^{64.} M. 37. 14. 15: 38. 61-64: 44. 68: 50. 34: 51. 77. 87: Puj. 34; E.Z. I. 55, 227: II. 19, 68.

^{65.} M. 37. 15, 91: 41. 32: E.Z. I. 55, 239.

^{66.} M. 37. 15.

^{67.} M. 42. 28.

⁶⁸ M. 42. 64, 65.

^{69.} M. 45. 29: 46. 21: 50. 69, 77: 52. 58: 60. 83; Puj. 29, 31; E \nearrow L. 52 57, 109, 188: V. 169.

- (xiii) Tiputthulla Vihāra was built on Mahāvihāra territory and granted to Abhayagiri by Dāṭhopatissa II (659-667).⁷⁰
- (xiv) UTTAROMŪĻA or Uttarāļha or Uturaļamula Pariveņa was a superb building erected by Mānavamma (684-718).⁷¹ Sena I (833-853) added a cell and Sena II (853-887) a Pāsāda. In Uttarāļha was the Maṅgala or Maṅgul Piriveṇa which Mahinda IV (956-972) rebuilt. In the Vēļaikkāra inscription of the 12th century at Polonnaruva, the Uttoruļamūļa shrine is described as 'the chief fane of Abhayagiri Mahāvihāra and the original depository of the Tooth and Bowl Relics'. Fa-Hsien (411-413) says that the Tooth Relic was taken every year to Abhayagiri and that the ceremonies continued there for 90 days: but the Relic House in his time could not have been Uttoruļamūļa.⁷²
- (xv) Sabhattudesabhoga was built by Aggabodhi VI (733-772).⁷³
- (xvi) Mahinda II (777-797) built Mahālekha Pariveņa.74
- (xvii) In the reign of Sena I (833-853) the following five dwellings were built:—(a) Vīrankurārāma or Vīrānkura monastery, allied to Mulaso Vihāra; (b) Mahindasena, (c) Uttarasena; (d) Vajīrasenaka; and (e) Rakkhasa.⁷⁵
- (xviii) Samghasenapabbata or Satsen or Sangsana Pirivena or Sangsen-aram was built in the reign of Sena II (853-887) and was restored by Kassapa V (914-923).76
- (xix) Kassapa Pāsāda or Kasub-rad-maha-pahā was built by Kassapa IV (898-914). Mahinda IV (956-972) repaired its roof, 35 cubits (52 feet) long.⁷⁷
- (xx) Kassapa V (914-923) built Bhaṇḍikā Pariveṇa and Silāmeghapabbata.⁷⁸
- (xxi) The Piyangal Monastery was allied to Abhayagiri and probably in it.⁷⁹

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 - (xxii) The Bat-Gē or Refectory is mentioned in an inscription of Kassapa V (914-923). The smaller stone 'boat' here bears an inscription of the late 8th or early 9th century and the 'boat' is called gal-näva.⁸⁰
 - (xxiii) The general of Kassapa IV (898-914) built the Dhammārāma.⁸¹
 - (xxiv) Udā-Kitagbo-pavu (or Udayakittiaggabodhipabbata, present *Puliyankulam* ruins) was built by the Mahā-dipāda Udaya of Dappula V (924-935) and was a branch of Purvaram-vehera (Pubbārāma) of the Kapārā fraternity.⁸²
 - (xxv) The Pusarbā-pahā was built by Mahinda IV (956-972).83

(E). The Jetavanārāma Entourage

The Jetavana Vihāra, also called Denānaka or Denā Vihāra in Sinhalese inscriptions and literature, was founded by Mahāsena (275-301) in the Jotivana Park on territory within the precincts of the Mahāvihāra. The king built it for the Mahāthera of Dakkhiṇa Vihāra. The Jetavanārāma monks were of the Sāgaliya sect which first established itself at Dakkhiṇa Vihāra in the year 253. Thus were created three important monastic establishments (Abhayagiri, Dakkhiṇa Vihāra and Jetavanārāma) in opposition to the orthodox Mahāvihāra. Sirimeghavaṇṇa (301-328) completed the work of construction which Mahāsena had begun. In the Jetavanārāma entourage were:—

(i) JETAVANA THŪPA, built by Mahāsena (275-301): it was 400 feet high and the largest thūpa at Anurādhapura. Mittasena (428) made a gateway (toraṇa) through the Elephant wall. Dhātusena (455-473) restored and gilded the umbrella, fitted round it a ring of crystal in which was embedded a large gem, and put in fine stucco work. Mahānāga (569-571) built the hatthivedī (railing ornamented with elephant heads) and repaired the ring of crystal, the stucco work and the paintings. Aggabodhi I (571-604) placed a golden, bejewelled umbrella on the thūpa. Moggallāna III (614-619) renovated the thūpa. Further repairs were carried out in the last quarter of the 10th century. Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) restored the thūpa to a height of 140 cubits (210 feet).84

^{70.} M. 45. 29, 30.

^{71, 72.} M. 50. 77: 51. 75: 57. 20; Puj. 30; E.Z. I. 238: II. 254.

^{73.} M. 48. 64.

^{74.} M. 48. 135.

^{75.} M. 50. 68, 79, 83, 84; N.S. 18; E.Z. I. 28.

^{76.} M. 51. 86, 87; Puj. 31; E.Z. I. 51, 190.

^{77.} M. 52. 13; E.Z. I 227.

^{78.} M. 52. 58.

^{79.} Puj. 29; E.Z. I. 53, 108.

^{80.} E.Z. I. 55: IV. 150.

^{81.} M. 52. 17.

^{82.} E.Z. I. 188.

^{83.} E.Z. I. 227.

^{84.} M. 37. 32-39, 65: 38. 10, 54, 74: 41. 95: 42. 31: 44. 44: 78. 98; N.S. 13, 15; Puj. 24, 34; E.Z. III. 133.

- (ii) Aggabodhi II (604-614) constructed a building with a glittering spire. 85
- (iii) THE MAHĀ PARIVEŅA or Ratna-mā-piriveņa was probably built by Mahāsena (275-301), the founder of the Vihāra. Aggabodhi VI (733-772) added a Pāsāda to it. Sena I (833-853) rebuilt the Pāsāda after it had been destroyed by fire. In an inscription of Mahinda VI (956-972) at the so-called 'Buddhist Railing' ruins, are mentioned the Water Pavilion at the Gate, the Ratna-mā-piriveṇa and the Senevirad college in Denā Rajamahavehera.⁸⁶
- (iv) The Sirisamghabodhi Pariveṇa, called Siri-Sangbo-Rad-Piriveṇa in Denā vehera in an inscription of Dappula V (924-935), was built by the Damila Senāpati of Aggabodhi IV (667-683).87
- (v) The Bodhi Tree Temple was presented with a golden Image of the Buddha by Dappula II (815-831).88
- (vi) THE MANIMEKHALA or Miṇimevulā Pāsāda or Maṇipāsāda or Miṇipā was built by Sena I (833-853) who installed a gold Image of the Buddha in it. Sena II (853-887) added Images of Bodhisattas. In the reign of Udaya IV (946-954) the Cōlas destroyed the building and the king partly rebuilt it. Mahinda IV (956-972) restored it.89
- (vii) Kassapasena Vihāra was built by the general of Kassapa IV (898-914).
- (viii) The Diyasen Uposatha House was renovated by Mahinda IV (956-972).91
 - (ix) Four officials of Mahinda IV (956-972) built 4 Parivenas.92

(F). The Southern Area

(i) DAKKHINA VIHĀRA was founded by a Minister of Vaṭṭagāmaṇi Abhaya (B.C. 89-77). The Mahāvaṁsa says, 'One of the 7 warriors of the king, Uttiya, built, to the south of the City, the so-called Dakkhiṇa Vihāra. In the same place the Minister named Mūla built the Mūlavokāsa Vihāra, which was, therefore, called after him'. In a series of 2nd or 3rd century inscriptions in situ the thūpa is named Tisa-maha-ceta in Dakiṇi Vihara: in another inscription of the same

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period the Vihāra is styled Dakiṇi-Abaya-araba-vihera. Dr. Paranavitana is of opinion that the thūpa was built over the cremation site of king Duṭṭhagāmaṇi Abhaya who died in B.C. 137. Kaniṭṭha Tissa (167-186) added a mantling to the thūpa, and Vohārika Tissa (209-231) restored the umbrella. Dakkhiṇa Vihāra became the seat of the Sāgaliya sect, a body which separated from the Dhammaruci sect at Abhayagiri Vihāra and went to Dakkhiṇa Vihāra in the 4th year (253) of Goṭhābhaya: afterwards this sect overran Jetavanārāma. Dāṭhopatissa I (639-650) broke open the thūpa and despoiled it of its treasures. Dakkhiṇa Vihāra allied itself with Abhayagiri and Jetavanārāma against the orthodox Mahāvihāra. In the Vihāra were, besides the thūpa:—

- (a) the Uposatha House built, presumably, when the Vihāra was founded: Goṭhābhaya (248-263) restored it;
- (b) a Refectory built by Kanittha Tissa (167-186) together with a road leading to it: in the course of the work, Mahāvihāra territory was encroached upon and part of the boundary wall of the Mahāvihāra was moved;
- (c) a Wall round the Vihāra was built by Vohārika Tissa (209-231);
- (d) a Pāsāda was built by Aggabodhi I (571-604);
- (e) the Digama-parivana in Dakana Vihara is mentioned in an inscription of the reign of Dāṭhopatissa I (639-650).⁹³
- (ii) Meghagiri Vihāra or Meygiri Vihāra (present *Isurumuṇiya*) was in the Mahāmeghavana and was the first repository of the Tooth Relic: it was situated between Dakkhina thūpa and the eastern gate of the Magul Uyana, and was a place where rain-making ceremonies were carried out.⁹⁴
- (iii) ISSARASAMAŅA Vihāra (present Vessagiriya) was founded by Devānampiya Tissa (B.C. 247-207) at the place where 500 disciples under the prince Aritha dwelt after their conversion by Mahinda. A sapling of the Bodhi Tree was planted there. In inscriptions of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd centuries in situ the site is named Isiramaṇa Vihara. Vasabha (67-111) built the Uposatha House, and Vohārika Tissa (209-231) built a wall. Kassapa I of Sīgiri (473-491) enlarged the Vihāra, endowed it and re-named it, after his two daughters and himself, Bodhī-Uppallavaṇṇā-Kassapagiri Vihāra: this is confirmed by inscriptions of the 6th and 7th centuries in situ in which the Vihāra is named Boya-Opulavana-Kasabagiri Vihara. Hereafter the Chronicle refers to the Vihāra as Kassapagiri Vihāra. Jeṭṭhatissa III (628) and Dāṭhopatissa II (659-667) endowed the Vihāra.

^{85.} M. 42. 66.

^{86.} M. 48. 65: 50. 67; E.Z. III. 228, 229.

^{87.} M. 46. 22, 23; E.Z. II. 48.

^{88.} M. 49. 77.

^{89.} M. 50. 65, 66: 51. 77: 53. 52: 54. 48; Puj. 31; E.Z. I. 227.

^{90.} M. 52. 17; E.Z. II 40.

^{91.} E.Z. I. 227.

^{92.} M. 54. 55.

^{93.} D. 19. 19: 22. 24, 58; M. 33. 88, 98: 35. 5: 36. 12, 13, 33-37, 107: 42. 14: 44. 140; N.S. 13, 15, 16; E.Z. V. 69.

^{94.} Artibus Asiae, XVI, No. 3, 167.

Mahinda IV (956-972) built the Mahā-pāsāda: an inscription of this king includes a decision on the claim of Isurameņu-Bo-Upulvan-Kasubgiri Vihāra to the water-rights of the Tissa tank. 95

- (iv) TISSAVĀPI (present *Tissavāva*) was constructed by Devānampiya Tissa (B.C. 247-207). Dhātusena (455-473) built Kālavāpi (*Kalāvāva*) and conducted water from it along the artificial canal Jaya Gaṅgā (present *Yōda-ālā*), 54 miles long, to Tissavāpi at Anurādhapura. Parakkamabāhu İ (1153-1186) restored the Jaya Gaṅgā. In an inscription of Mahinda IV (956-972) regulations were set out for the distribution of the water-supply of Tissa tank: the water from the Moholnaṅga royal sluice was to be used for the Royal Park, and the monks of Issarasamaṇa Vihāra were not to be made to lose by the release of water through the Kolomb canal which flowed northwards. 96
- (v) MAGUL UYANA or Royal Park was below the bund of Tissavāpi and was also known as the Ran-masu-uyana or 'Goldfish' Park. The site, with its pokuņas and rocks, has been attractively conserved.97
- (vi) Helloligāma or Hellola or Helloliya was a Caṇḍāla village situated between Dakkhiṇa Vihāra and Issarasamaṇa Vihāra. 98

(G). The Western Area

(i) TAPOVANA was the area in which the ruins of the Western monasteries are situated. Prior to the reign of Manavamma (684-718) there is no reference in the Chronicles to the ascetics called Pamsukūlins. Pamsukūla means a collection of rags, and a Pamsukūlin was, therefore, one who wore garments made of rags patched together. Mānavamma built a Pāsāda for the Pamsukūlins in the Thūpārāma. In 871, in the reign of Sena II, the Pamsukūlika bhikkhus in the Abhayagiri Vihāra separated and formed special groups. The Tapovana is first mentioned in the reign of Kassapa IV (898-914): the king built a dwelling there for the Pamsukulins. Kassapa V (914-923) built the Deva dwelling in the Tapovana. The Tapovana was also known as 'the Grove of the Penitents'. In the reign of Udaya III (946-954) some officials of the Court, through fear of the king, sought sanctuary in the monasteries of the Tapovana, and, on the king's orders. they were pursued, seized and executed there. The Pamsukūlins abandoned their temples in protest and the populace rose in rebellion,

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- compelling the king to seek out the Pamsukūlins and obtain their pardon. 99
- (ii) Sena I (833-853) built a Hall for the sick in the western part of the City. 100

(H) The Eastern Area

- (i) Paṭhama Cetiya was built by Devānampiya Tissa (B.C. 247-207) by the east gate of the Citadel. A sapling of the Bodhi Tree was planted there. 101
- (ii) Pācīnatissapabbata Vihāra was built by Jetthatissa I (263-275). To it he removed a stone Image of the Buddha which was in Thūpārāma: Mahāsena (275-301) transferred this Image to Abhayagiri Vihāra. A 6th century inscription in situ names the site Pajiṇatisapavata. 102
- (iii) Mahāsena (275-301) built a thūpa at the place of the Yakkha Kālavela which was in the eastern part of the $City.^{108}$
- (iv) Sotthiyākara Vihāra was built by Sirimeghavanna (301-328) near the east gate. 104
- (v) There was a guild named Mahatabaka in the eastern part of the City in the 5th century. 105
- (vi) Sūratissa (circa B.C. 200) built Goṇṇagiri Vihāra in the eastern quarter of the City. An inscription of Gajabāhu I (114-136) mentions Goṇagiri in the Čity. 106
- (vii) Art inscription of Gajabāhu I (114-136) mentions Nakaravavi, present *Nuvara-vāva*.¹⁰⁷

(I). Unlocated Buildings

- (i) The Chattapāsāda, a beautiful building, existed in the reign of Bhātikabhaya (B.C. 22-A.C. 7). 108
 - (ii) Gajabāhu I (114-136) built the Mahejāsanasāla. 109
- (iii) Meghavannābhaya Vihāra was built by Gothābhaya (249-263). 110

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99. M. 47. 66: 51. 52: 52. 19, 21, 22, 64: 53. 14-26.
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^{95.} D. 17. 91 : 22. 2 , M. 19. 61 : 20. 14, 20 : 35. 47, 48, 87 : 36. 36 : 39. 10-13 : 44. 98 * 45. 27 : 48. 25 ; E.Z. I. 35, 39, 228 : IV. 132, 133 ; C.J.S. (G) II. 27, 28, 182, 200, 201.

^{96.} M. 20. 20: 38. 42. 79. 58: E.Z. I. 36.

^{97.} E.Z. I. 36; J.R.A.S. (C.B.), XXXVI.

^{98.} J.R.A.S. (C.B.), XXXVI. 7.

^{100.} M. 50. 75.

^{101.} M. 14. 45: 19. 6: 20. 20: 38. 9.

^{102.} M. 36. 128, 129: 37. 14: 41. 14: 44. 15; D. 22. 64.

^{103.} M. 10. 84: 37. 44.

^{104.} M. 37. 81.

^{105.} E.Z. III. 250.

^{106.} M. 21. 5; E.Z. III. 116.

^{107.} E.Z. III, 116.

^{108.} M. 34. 65.

^{109.} M. 35. 122.

^{110.} M. 36. 108. 100.

- (iv) North of the Mangala Cetiya (which may be any one of the 4 great Cetiyas or the Thūpārāma) Upatissa I (365-406) built a thūpa and an Image House. Dhātusena (455-473) added Bodhisatta figures to the Images in the Image House of the Bahumangala Cetiya.¹¹¹
- (v) There was a merchants' guild named Kalahumanaka or Kalamahanaka in the northern part of the City in the 4th century. 112
- (vi) Moggallāna I (491-508) built Pabbata Vihāra and granted it to Mahānāma Thera who lived in the Dīghāsana dwelling in the Mahāvihāra.¹¹³
- (vii) The Uttara Practising House was built by the Senāpati Uttara of Moggallāna I. 114
- (viii) Aggabodhi VIII (804-815) built Udayaggabodhi Pariveṇa. Mahinda IV (956-972) repaired Udā-Agbo-piriveṇa. 115
 - (ix) Aggabodhi VIII (804-815) built Bhūta Pariveṇa. 116
- (x) Sena I (833-853) completed the building of Kassaparājaka Vihāra. Kassapa V (914-923) restored Kasub-raj-mahaveher, and Mahinda IV (956-972) restored Kasub-rad-piriveṇa.¹¹⁷
- (xi) Mahindasena Parivena was built in the reign of Sena II (853-887). Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) restored a Pāsāda of this name. 118
 - (xii) Mahinda IV (956-972) built an Alms Hall at Yaṭabähila.¹¹⁹
- (xiii) Mahinda IV (956-972) built the great Alms Hall Purimālā. (This may be identical with the Mahāpāli in the Citadel). 120
- $\rm (xiv)$ Mahinda IV (956-972) installed a gold Image of the Buddha in Atuļā Vilıāra. 121
 - (xv) Mahinda IV (956-972) endowed Kir-bimb vehera. 122
- (xvi) Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) restored Sepannipuppha Pāsāda.¹²³
 - (xvii) Nissanka Malla built an Alms Hall at Anurādhapura. 124

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111. M. 37. 183: 38. 65.
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CHAPTER XIX

THE ANURĀDHAPURA DISTRICT

The original kingdom of Anurādhapura extended over the entire northern and north-central plain and, in medieval times, it was described as Rājaraṭṭha, but whether this name was in use in the early period is not known. Later, Rājaraṭṭha became Patiṭṭhāraṭṭha (S. Pihiṭi-raṭa). The original kingdom was divided into four main divisions, named after the four cardinal directions, and this nomenclature persisted long after the whole of Ceylon had been united as one kingdom in B.C. 161. The four divisions were:—

- (i) Uttarapassa or Uttaradesa or Uttararattha (in inscriptions, Uturapasa, Uturpasa and Uturukarā), the northeru division, which began about 10 miles north of Anurādhapura and extended to the north-west, north and northeast coasts;
- (ii) Pacchimapassa or Pacchimadesa (in inscriptions, Padipasa or Palapasa), the western division, extending over Vilacciya and Vilpattu to the western coast;
- (iii) Puratthimadesa or Pācīnadesa or Pubbadesa (in inscriptions, Pajiṇapasa or Pādumpasa), the eastern division, which included all the area from near *Mihintalē* eastward to the *Mahavāli Gaṅga*; and
- (iv) Dakkhinadesa or Dakkhinapassa (in inscriptions, Dakunpasa), the southern division, extending in the 10th century to the Kalu Ganga.¹

The Anurādhapura and Polonnaruva districts are in the dry zone and are traversed by the large rivers, *Mahaväli Ganga* (which has a perennial flow), *Kalā Oya*, *Malvatta Oya*, and *Yān Oya*. The fullest use was made of these rivers and their tributaries to develop a vast and complex irrigation system, an ancient feat of engineering without parallel in India. This region was by far the most productive foodproducing area in Ceylon. The terrain is not uniformly flat: several hill ranges, large and small, and numerous rock-outcrops rise from the plain.

(A). Nuvaragam Palāta

Uruvelā (spuriously called Mahaväligama in the Rājāvaliya); a port on the west coast, was founded, according to one tradition, by

^{112.} E.Z. III. 78; A.S. 7th Rep. 54.

^{113.} M. 39. 42.

^{114.} M. 39. 58. 115. M. 49. 45; E.Z. I. 227.

^{116.} M. 49. 46.

^{117.} M. 50. 81: 52. 45; E.Z. I. 51, 227.

^{118.} M. 51. 60: 78. 106.

^{119.} E.Z. I. 227.

^{120.} E.Z. I. 228.

^{121.} E.Z. I. 229.

^{122.} E.Z. I. 229.

^{123.} M. 47. 64: 78. 105.

^{124.} E.Z. II. 178.

^{1.} M. 10. 20: 21. 4, 6: 35. 58, 59, 124: 37. 42: 38. 24: 41. 33, 35: 42. 8: 44. 84, 88, 89: 45. 21, 23, 77: 47. 3: 48. 33, 39, 41, 83, 95, 111, 112, 155: 50. 14, 44, 49: 51. 7, 12, 19: 52. 1: 58. 40, 42: 59. 11, 18, 20: 61. 21, 26, 33: 70. 63; E.Z. I. 246: II. 23, 42, 54: III. 103, 139, 274: IV. 64, 182, 184, 222: U.C.R. IX, No. 1, 20.

a Minister of Vijaya, and, according to another, by a Sakka prince. It was 5 yojanas or 20 gav (40 to 50 miles) to west of Anurādhapura, and pearls are said to have been found there in the reign of Dutthagāmaṇi Abhaya (B.C. 161-137). Near Uruvelā, king Subha (60-67) founded Vallī or Villa Vihāra, recently identified by an epigraph as a group of ruins close to the 21st mile on the Puttalam-Mariccikaḍḍai track. Uruvelā was, therefore, at or very near the mouth of the Kalā Oya.²

At Occāpu Kallu, in the Vilpattu National Park, on the boundary between the Puttalam and Anurādhapura districts and about 2½ miles south of the Mōderagam Āru, there is an inscription of Kaniṭṭha Tissa (167-186) in which the site is named Kuba Vihera. Other placenames occurring in this inscription are:—(i) Jabo-aviya; (ii) Matuka-aviya; (iii) Talavaṇa-aviya; and (iv) Cudataka tank in Vevaļamitiya in Magaṇa-nakara. Magaṇa, doubtless identical with Ptolemy's port of Margana, is mentioned in three other early inscriptions. The Sīgiri Graffiti name Magaṇava and Maguṇ. The situation of the place was very probably at the mouth of the Mōderagam Āru where there are the remains of a buried city.³

At Sināḍiyagala, a rock about 1½ miles from the Mōderagam Āru in the Vilpattu East Intermediate Zone, there is an inscription of Vasabha (67-111) in which a grant is made of Kalapahaṇaka tank to the Dakkhiṇa Vihāra at Anurādhapura. This is identical with the Kālāpāsāṇa or Kalavāṇa tank ascribed to Mahāsena who reigned over 150 years later. The Kalapahaṇaka tank is the large, breached reservoir now known as Karambakulam, below Sināḍiyagala.4

Mahallaka Nāga (136-143) founded Dakapāsāņa Vihāra in the western part of Rājarattha. 5

Vasabha (67-III) built Cayantī tank, also called Mayanti and Māyetti, in Pacchimadesa, the western quarter. Jeṭṭhatissa III (628) gave the village Sahannanagara to Mayettikassapāvāsa Vihāra, and Aggabodhi III (629-639) donated Sālaggāma to the same Vihāra. Sāligāma was a village near the west gate of Anurādhapura. Udaya II (887-898) enlarged the dam of Mayettī tank. Codrington proposes to identify Mayettī tank with one of the reservoirs, Nāccaduva or Ēruvāva, but neither of these is in Pacchimadesa: more probably, Mayetti was one of the two large Vilacciya tanks, Mahavilacciya or Kudāvilacciya.

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Mahāsena (275-301) built Dhātūsenapabbata Vihāra in Pacchimadesa. Dhātusena (455-473) built Dhātusenapabbata Vihāra (there is a difference in spelling) in Pāsāṇasinnadesa, a district also in Pacchimadesa.

The sub-division Valapu-bim in Pälapäsa is mentioned in an inscription of Kassapa IV (898-913) near *Mallimaḍu* (erroneously called *Kukurumahandamana* by Bell) in the *Vilpattu National Park*: the village Kerelägama or Venulägama was assigned to a Hospital at Anurādhapura.8

Kadahalaka tank is mentioned in a 1st century cave inscription at Galge Vihāra in the Vilpattu South Intermediate Zone, and is the breached tank near the ruins.

Other sites with inscriptions in the Vilpattu National Park are:—
(i) a rock with ruins near Timbiriväva, south of Maradanmaduva, with an inscription of Kumāradāsa (508-516) and two other inscriptions of the 5th century; (ii) Andaragollāgala, about a mile from the lastnamed, with an inscription of Dāṭhopatissa II (667-683); and (iii) an inscribed pillar of the 10th century at Paṭṭi-eliya, near Galgē Vihāra. 10

At Vēragala, a ruined site on the Vilpattu boundary and about 4 miles north-west of the $27\frac{1}{2}$ mile on the Puttalam-Anurādhapura road, there are two damaged inscriptions of the 1st century in which the following place-names occur:—(i) Sikalagama; (ii) Mahanamelivara-Batagama; (iii) Patagama; (iv) Maradaka; (v) Maharuka tank; (vi) Culasumanagama; (vii) Mahakada; (viii) Kaburagama; and (ix) Banahagama.

In an inscription of Kassapa IV (898-914) at $Timbiriv\ddot{a}va$, at the $27\frac{1}{2}$ mile on the Puttalam-Anurādhapura road, the village Mibäļigama (modern $Timbiriv\ddot{a}va$) is assigned to Māḍbiyan Piriveṇa at Nadrat. 12

Äbalava in the western quarter of Rājaraṭṭha is mentioned in the Sīgiri Graffiti.¹³

Vasabha (67-III) built the tank Vahavāpi, and Mahāsena (275-30I) built Vāhana tank. In a 4th century inscription at *Halmillagala* Vihāra, 2 miles from *Nocciyagama* on the *Puttalam*-Anurādhapura road, Vahaviya (which is equivalent to Vahavāpi) is mentioned and is probably the breached tank now known as *Pānikkankulam*, I mile north of the 24th mile on the *Puttalam*-Anurādhapura road. Also

^{2.} D. 21. 47; M. 7. 45: 9. 9: 28. 36: 35. 58; Puj. 2; Thv. 163.

^{3.} A.I.C. 20; J.R.A.S. (C.B.) No. 73, 55; Codrington, Coins, 193; Sig. Graff. I, App. C.

^{4.} M. 37. 49; Puj. 24; Raj. 52; A.S.C.A.R. 1896, 7; Codrington, Coins, 193.

^{5.} M. 35. 124.

^{6.} M. 35. 93 : 44. 90, 100, 122 : 51. 130 ; D. 22. 7, 8 ; E.M. 35. 95 : M.T. 953 ; J.R.A.S. (C.B.) XXXVI, 8.

^{7.} M. 37. 42: 38. 47.

^{8.} E.Z. II. 24.

^{9.} A.S.C.A.R., 1896, 6: 1954, 38.

^{10.} A.S.C.A.R., 1954, 38.

^{11.} A.I.C. 58; A.S.C.A.R., 1896, 5.

^{12.} E.Z. II. · 13.

^{13.} Sig. Graff. I, App. C.

mentioned in this and other early inscriptions at *Halmillagala* are:—(i) Kiḍakehigama; (ii) Huvaragama; (iii) Karujikeya; (iv) Kaḍagalaṇa, associated with the *Kalā Oya*; (v) Vapalagama; and (vi) Kaḍaragama.¹⁴

At the Kiralagala ruins, about 10 miles north of the 28th mile on the Puttalam-Anurādhapura road, a 2nd century inscription mentions the following places:—(i) Batigama; (ii) Digasivagama; (iii) Kabarajitagama; (iv) Nava tank; and (v) tracts of fields (vi keta) named Viṭuhara Daḍamakula, Nahara, Humana, Tulatara, Aca, Mahabamaṇa, Vaṇija, Labaka, Sacina, Dabare, Payihaba and Vejabutigala. 15

The village Citagama is mentioned in a 2nd century inscription at Andiyagala as well as in the tablets at Dakkhina Vihāra, Anurādhapura. Andiyagala, Billavagala and Tāntirimalai are rocky hills situated fairly close together about 18 miles north-north-west of Anurādhapura: all have caves with pre-Christian inscriptions. 16

Candamukha Siva (43-52) constructed and donated to Issarasamaṇa Vihāra at Anurādhapura the Maṇikāragāma tank: Maṇikārāma was near Issarasamaṇa. An inscription of Sirināga II (240-242) at Issarasamaṇa Vihāra records the grant to the Vihāra by Vohārika Tissa (209-231) of Maṇikara tank and Keṇahisa village, both situated in the western division. Mäṇingamu is mentioned in a 10th century inscription and may be identical with Maṇikara: there are a village and a tank now called *Maṇingamuva* about 9 miles from Anurādhapura on the *Arippu* road.¹⁷

Nikaviţigama is mentioned in a 4th century inscription at *Nabaḍagala*, r mile north of the 36th mile on the *Puttalam*-Anurādhapura road.

In a 1st century inscription at *Ihalagala*, about 2 miles north of the 30th mile on the *Western Minor Road*, the place Badahibadaka is mentioned. ¹⁸

A 1st century inscription at Tumbullēgala, 4 miles south-west of the 28th mile on the Western Minor Road, mentions:—
(i) Kaladagavi-nakariya, apparently a town near the Kalā Oya; (a 3rd century inscription at Malasnēgala, about 3½ miles north-east of the 17th mile on the Puttalam-Anurādhapura road, names Kaledigevi-niyamatana: the town of Kaladagavi and the market-town of Kaledigevi in these two inscriptions appear to be identical): Hatthadātha (684) built the Kālādīghavika Practising House; and (ii) Ahalaviya. 19

- 14. M. 35. 94: 37. 48: A.I.C. 59; A.S.C.A.R., 1896, 5.
- 15. A.I.C. 54.
- 16. J.R.A.S. (C.B.) XXII, 73: XXIX, 112.
- 17. D. 21. 44; M. 35. 47; E.Z. II. 25; IV. 322.
- 18. A.I.C. 62: A.S.C.A.R., 1896, 5.
- 19. M. 46. 46; A.S.C.A.R., 1896, 5.

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Angamu or Angagāma retains its ancient name in the present, breached tank, Angamuva-väva, 3 miles south of the 28th mile on the Western Minor Road (Codrington): the tank was restored by Parak-kamabāhu I (1153-1186). There are two inscriptions here of the 1st and the 4th century and in these inscriptions the ruins are named Anulapavata or Mala-Anulapavata Mahavehera, and the following place-names occur:—(i) Kadisagagama; and (ii) Akejikadari.²⁰

At Alutgal Vihāra, I mile north of the 21st mile on the Western Minor Road, two inscriptions of the 2nd and 3rd centuries name:—
(i) Karajahabaka tank; (ii) Sagaviya; (iii) Uli tank; (iv) Punagama tank; (v) Talaviya; (vi) Talasagaviya; and (vii) tracts of fields (vi keta) named Tulatara, Vihiraka and Parivataka.

In an inscription of Kassapa V (914-923) at *Bilibāva*, near the 26th mile on the *Western Minor Road*, the village Mahagāpiyova, (present *Bilibāva*), in the sub-district Pirivatu-bim, was granted to the Mahāvihāra at Anurādhapura: at this period this region was in Dakkhinadesa.²¹

To oppose Parakkamabāhu's forces who crossed the Kalā Oya and took up position at Aṅgamu (see above), Gajabāhu's troops engaged them at Senāgāma but were defeated. Parakkamabāhu's troops then continued their advance towards Anurādhapura and successively captured:—(i) Manyāgāma; (ii) Mita; (iii) Sūkaragāma; (iv) Terigāma (see Teragama); and (v) Badarībhātikamāna, a few miles from Anurādhapura.²²

Across the Kalā Oya, opposite Moravāpi district, was Kaṭiyagāma or Kaṭivāpi, restored by Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186), identified by Codrington as modern Kaṭṭiyāva, 3 miles south-south-west of Eppāvala. To march against Moravāpi district, Mānābharaṇa assembled his forces at Anurādhapura: Parakkamabāhu's general at Kalāväva advanced to Kāṇamūla to intercept them and then penetrated deeper into Rājaraṭṭha to Kaṭuvandu. Parakkamabāhu restored Kāṇagāma tank which was close to Kāṇamūla: the name Kaṇumulla still survives near the 70th mile on the Käkirāva-Anurādhapura road.²³

In two inscriptions of the 10th century at $\ddot{A}pp\bar{a}vala$, near the 15th mile on the $K\ddot{a}kir\bar{a}va$ -Tal $\bar{a}va$ road, the site is called Pamagalu Vihāra, and the village S \bar{a} gama and the fields Galamburu are mentioned.²⁴

Alutväva, a village about 3 miles north of the 12th mile on the Käkirāva-Talāva road, is called Hopiṭiya in the sub-division Mahademeṭi-kuliya, in an inscription of Kassapa IV (898-914) in situ: also menṭioned is the place Govīn-nämäpiṭiya. 25

^{20.} M. 70. 123-130: 79. 37.

^{21.} E.Z. II. 43.

^{22.} M. 70. 123-161.

^{23.} M. 70. 67: 72. 176-204: 79. 34, 35.

^{24.} E.Z. III. 191, 193.

^{25.} E.Z.·II. 234.

To southward of and not far from Anurādhapura were:—(i) Chātapabbata or Chātavāhapabbata, a hill a little over a yojana southeast of Anurādhapura, where Saddhātissa built Chāta Vihāra: most probably this is present Talaguru vihāra on Gāṭalagamakanda; (ii) Cetāvigāma or Cētalīgāma not far from and south of Anurādhapura; (iii) Paṇḍulagāmaka; (iv) Siyāmahantakuddāla, near Tissavāpi but to westward of it; (v) Mahāgāmeṇḍi or Gāmeṇḍitalāka tank, granted by Āmaṇḍagāmaṇi Abhaya (19-29) to Dakkhiṇa Vihāra; (vi) Nāvini, granted to the Bodhi Tree; (vii) Diviyataraṇḍaka, granted to Dakkhiṇa Vihāra; (ix) Kivisipiṭini, granted to Dakkhiṇa Vihāra; and (x) Siripiṭṭhi, called Siripiṭi in the Sīgiri Graffiti, probably present Hiripiṭiyagama near the 5th mile on the Kākirāva-Talāva road.²⁷

Vihārabīja or Vihirabija was a sub-district close to and south of Anurādhapura. 500 young men from this area received the pabbajā from Mahinda Thera. In it were:—(i) Muḍagutika or Muṭigutika tank; and (ii) Visaļagamika.²⁸

Mahāsena (275-301) built Rattamālakaṇḍaka or Rattala tank and Kassapa IV (898-914) erected a shrine on the Rattāmala hill, present $Ratmal\bar{e}$, close to and south of Anurādhapura. The village Kakkhagamiya is mentioned in a 6th century inscription at $Kud\bar{a}$ $Ratmal\bar{e}$. ²⁹

The ruins called *Maṇḍagala*, about 2 miles west of the 10th mile on the Anurādhapura-Kurunāgala road, are named Ajunahivita Vihara in a 1st century inscription in situ: also mentioned are Hotavata and Kajidora.

Kosavakanda Vihāra about 2 miles south-east of Maradankaḍavala, is styled Milakatiśa Vihāra in a 2nd B.C. inscription there, but in a later 2nd century inscription it is named Jalakataka Vehera and the Darakaḍa tank is mentioned.³⁰

Mahagala is mentioned in a 6th century inscription at Noccikulama, near Marandankadavala. ³¹

Upatissagāma or Upatissanagara was a settlement on the Gambhīra river, 1 yojana (8 to 12 miles) north of Anurādhapura,

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founded by Vijaya's Minister, Upatissa, according to tradition, in the 6th century B.C.: it was in Alsara and a prosperous market-town. After Vijaya's death and till the accession of Paṇdukābhaya, a period of about 50 years, it was the capital. The movement of the first stream of immigration was up the Kadamba-nadī, the first seat of the ruler being Tambapaṇṇi, at the river's mouth, next Upatissagāma, and finally Anurādhapura. 500 young men from Upatissagāma received the pabbajā from Mahinda. The Gambhīra river must be the Kaṇadara Oya which flows 10 to 12 miles north of Anurādhapura at the closest points. In inscriptions of the early centuries A.C. a division named Utarapura is mentioned which appears to have been named after a town of the same name: perhaps Upatissagāma was known also, contemporaneously or later, as Utarapura.³²

The Kadamba-nadī (present *Malvatta Oya*) is also called Kalamba and Kolom Oya and on its banks was the Kalambatittha or Galambatittha Vihāra existing in the 1st century: Vasabha (67-111) improved the Vihāra and built a tank to irrigate 1,000 karisas: ^{32A}

Early in the 2nd century B.C., Sūratissa built Kolambahālaka Vihāra near Raheraka. In B.C. 161 the Cola reinforcements under Bhalluka landed at Mahātittha (Māntai) and advanced to Kolambahālaka which must have been very close to Anuradhapura because the subsequent battle took place within the City. In B.c. 103, Vattagāmani Abhaya was vanquished in battle at Kolambālaka, also called Kalombālaka, which was to northward of and very close to the site of the later Abhayagiri Vihāra. Vasablıa (67-111) built Kolomba-gāmaka or Kolomgalurēru tank. Kolomba and Kolombagalu are mentioned in 10th century inscriptions: the Kolomb canal led water away from Tissavāpi to the north. These variants all stand for Kolambahālaka which was north of and within a short distance of the City. Close to Kolambahālaka was Raheraka. Silākāla (518-531) donated the Rahera canal to Abhayagiri Vihāra. Moggallāna II, (531-551), marching on Anuradhapura from the east, took up a position on Raherapabbata: Dāthāpābhuti camped opposite on Karindapabbata. Moggallana III (614-619) advanced on Anuradhapura from the south and reached Rahera: battle was joined at Pācīnatissapabbata, just outside and to east of the City. Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) restored Rahera tank.33

Taraccha tank, built in Devānampiya Tissa's reign (B.C. 247-207) was in or close to Anurādhapura: also close to the City were:—
(i) Hakaragoḍa; (ii) Ilubarata; and (iii) Gāma.³⁴

^{26.} E.H.B. App. IB.

^{27.} D. 21. 34; M. 10. 20: 11. 10: 17. 59: 35. 5: 44. 88: 70. 148-161; M.T. 300, 9: 384. 18; E.H.B. 54; E.Z. V, 26, note 6, 69; Sig. Graff. I, App. C.

^{28.} E.Z. I. 62, 255; A.I.C. 20.

^{29.} M. 52. 20: 37. 48; Puj. 24; Raj. 52; E.Z. V. 34.

^{30.} J.R.A.S. (C.B.) XXXVI, No. 98; A.S.C.A.R., 1893, 8; Codrington, Coins, 193.

^{31.} C. J.S. II. 28.

^{32.} D. 9. 30-44; M. 7. 44: 8. 13: 17. 60: 28. 7; Puj. 1. 32A. M. 35. 85; E.H.B. 121.

^{33.} M. 21. 5 : 25. 80-93 : 33. 42 : 35. 94 : 41. 31-46 : 44. 1-14 : 79. 33 ; Pu_{i} . 21 Raj. 47 ; E.Z. I. 36 : II. 56, 218.

^{34.} M. 22. 4; E.H.B. 75, 76, 107; E.Z. I. 182; J.R.A.S. (C.B.) XXXV, 54.

At Hankārapitthi, near the gate of Kappallakkhanda or Kapālakanda, Ilanāga I (33-43) defeated the Lambakannas. Hankāra village, the same as Hankārapitthi, was granted by Aggabodhi III (628) to the Mahallarāja Practising House, together with the villages Sāmugāma, Kehella and Mahāgalla (the last-named present Nikavarātiya in Kurunāgala district). 35

The Kiribat Vehera inscription of Kassapa IV (898-914) grants to Thūpārāma the land Uturmegirvatta (probably the site of the inscription) bounded on the east by Veheravatta and on the north by the Sambadā forest.³⁶

In an inscription of Mahinda IV (56-972) at Rambāva, at the 10th mile on the Anurādhapura-Jaffna road, a grant is made to the Mahāvihāra of:—(i) Asunpiṭiteya in Kilind-dengdara, and Kuṭṭāvatta, all in the sub-district Kalaņu-bim (the area around Rambāva) which was in Uturpasa (the northern division of Rājaraṭṭha); (ii) Moroṇḍu-Mahasengamiya; and (iii) Vaṅgurupiti or Paṅgurupiti.³⁷

Pācīnatissapabbata Vihāra, on the east side of Anurādhapura and below the northern curve of the bund of *Nuvaravāva*, was the scene of two battles, in each case the nearest point to the Capital reached by rebel forces. Close to Pācīnatissapabbata and to eastward of it was the Merumajjara forest.³⁸

Pācīnapabbata Vihāra on the Vanguttara hill was built by Sūratissa early in the 2nd century B.C.: it was at the foot of the Ekadvārika mountain. The Ekadvāra Vihāra, to east of Anurādhapura, was built by Subha (60-67) and it too was at the foot of the Ekadvārika hill. The Vanguttara hill was part of the Ekadvārika range. Inscriptions of Subha and of Gajabāhu I (114-136) at Pahala Kayināṭṭama and Vihāragala, at the foot of the range now known as Puliyankulamakanda, close to the Sīppikulama-Kayināṭṭama minor road, name the site Ekadoraya or Ekadorika Vihara, Ekadvāra of the Chronicle, and grant to it Upaladonika tank (present Kayināṭṭamaväva). A tank named Donuppalavāpi or Uppalavāpi is mentioned in the Commentaries. (There was another Vihāra name Ekadoraya in the Kurunāgala district). 39

Pācīnakambavitthi Vihāra, to east of Anurādhapura, was built by Dhātusena (455-473).

Dvāramaṇḍalaka, also called Dōvarikamaṇḍala or Vāramaṇḍala or Demiṭigama, was a village and sub-district close to *Mihintalē*. It was 9 yojanas (70 to 85 miles) from Kacchakatittha (*Mahagantoṭa*).

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Near Dvāramandala was Hatthikkhandha Vihāra, in the eastern division of Rājarattha, built by Sūratissa (circa B.C. 200).⁴¹

To east of Anurādhapura were :—(i) Acchagallaka Vihāra, near Dahegallaka or Rahagallaka, built by Sūratissa (circa B.C. 200); and (ii) Sejalaka or Pejalaka or Sajīlakandārāma founded by Mahāllaka Nāga (136-143).⁴²

Kaniṭṭha Tissa (167-186) built three Vihāras in the eastern division of Rājaraṭṭha :—(i) Niyelatissārāma; (ii) Pīlapiṭṭhi; and (iii) Rājamahā Vihāra which may be the same as Rājasāla Vihāra to which Aggabodhi VIII (804-815) granted the village Cūlavāpiyagāma.⁴³

Mahāsena (275-301) built Khānuvāpi which the Sinhalese Chronicle calls Kaṇadiyadora, identical with Kāṇavāpi, the large, breached reservoir now known as Kaṇadarāva, about 2 miles north-east of Mihintalē. Sena I (833-853) assigned Kāṇavāpi to Cetiyapabbata Vihāra (Mihintalē). Sena II (853-887) built a dam at Kaṭṭhantanagara to augment the supply to Kāṇavāpi. An inscription of Udaya II (887-898) at Kaṇadarāva names the tank Kāṇavāva. In the tablets of Mahinda IV (956-972) at Mihintalē the king decrees that the whole supply of Kaṇāvāva shall be utilised for Mihintalē Vihāra only, in accordance with the custom prevailing during the Tamil regime. Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110) and Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) both restored Kāṇavāpi: in an inscription of the latter the length of the bund of Kaṇādiyadora is given as 1,600 riyan.⁴⁴

Anulatissapabbata Vihāra in Gangārajī was built by Kaniṭṭha Tissa (167-186). A 6th century inscription at *Pūvarasankulam*, 2 miles north of *Mihintalē*, names the site Anulatisapavata. Gangārajī was, therefore, a sub-district close to and north of *Mihintalē*. 45

At Duṇumaḍalakanda Vihāra, 5 miles west-north-west of Mihintalē, there are inscriptions dating from 2nd B.C. to 1st A.C. in which the following place-names occur:—(i) Ulajaka tank; (ii) Sitasaviya; (iii) Kaṇagamaka, probably associated with Kāṇavāpi; (iv) Tulataraviya; (v) Ḥanahagamaka; (vi) Tisaviya; (vii) Paṇahagamaka, identical with Paṇāsagāma in the Mihintalē inscription; (viii) Maļaviya; (ix) Kaļatagama; (x) Cujivilaka; (xi) Naṭabarisaka; and (xii) Kadamujita.46

^{35.} M. 35. 39: 44. 119, 120: 45. 27; E.M. 35. 34.

^{36.} E.Z. I. 161.

^{37.} E.Z. II. 69.

^{38.} M. 41. 14:44. 15, 21. It is possible that Pācīnatissapabbata of the Cul_s is identical with the Pācīnapabbata (see below) of the M.

^{39.} M. 21. 5: 35. 58; M.T. 424: 648. 5; E.H.B. 120, 121; E.Z. III. 162-166.

^{40.} M. 38. 48.

^{41.} D. 10. 9; M. 10. 1: 17. 59: 21. 4: 23. 23, 26: M.T. 424; Raj. 31.

^{42.} D. 22. 15-17; M. 21. 6: 35. 124; M.T. 424; E.M. 35. 125.

^{43.} M. 36. 15: 49. 47; M.T. 659.

^{44.} M. 37. 47: 50. 72; 51: 73: 60. 50: 79. 34; E.Z. I. 112; C.J.S. (G) II. 115; A.S.C.A.R., 1937, io.

^{45.} M. 36. 15; C. J.S. (G) II. 102.

^{46.} A.I.C. 15, 20, 31; A.S.C.A.R., 1892, 6; Codrington, Coins, 194; E.Z, III. 155; U.C.R. VII, 238, 7.

Nilarājiya district was a sub-division extending over an area close to and north of Anurādhapura. In it were:—(i) Aritagāma; (ii) Kacaka-avuḍakagāma; (iii) Jaļagamaka tank donated to Abhayagiri Vihāra: Mahācūļī Mahātissa (B.C. 77-63) built Jālagāma Vihāra, also called Vālagāma; (iv) Citagama; and (v) Gamiṇitisa tank or Gāmaṇivāpi, present *Perumiyankulam*.⁴⁷

Upalabijaka or Upalavi-bijika or Upalavi was the name of a district in 1st B.C. and early A.C. which corresponded approximately to the southern portion of Kanda Korale, the western portion of Kalbe Kōralē and the northern portion of Kanadara Kōralē, its western and eastern limits being near Sīppikulama and Galkandēgama respectively. Within it was a sub-district named Utarapura-atana which extended over Kahatagasdigiliya and Nättunkanda. In Upalabijaka district were:—(i) Vadamana tank, present Pālu-mäkiccāva, near the 65th mile on the Anuradhapura-Trincomalee road, granted to Thuparāma by Gajabāhu I (114-136); (ii) Pajina-Nakapavata Vehera, the present ruins known as Tammanakanda, 3 miles north of the 63rd mile on the Anuradhapura-Trincomalee road; (iii) Patagamaka; (iv) Mahiya Pidaviya; (v) Navagamaka; (vi) Kutavanagama; (vii) Pajalaka tank: the Sigiri Graffiti mention Pajalava; (viii) Pala tank, and (ix) Hakanakaraka tank granted to Devarabaka Vihara: Padahataka tank at Devagama was also granted to the same Vihara. In the Utarapura-atana sub-division of Upalabijaka district were:-(i) Honagariya or Honagirika Vihara, called Hunagiri Vehera in the Sigiri graffiti, the present ruins on the hill Nättunkanda, about } mile west of the 3rd mile on the Kahatagasdigiliya-Ratmalēgahēvāva road; (ii) Erekapi; (iii) Pajina Honagiriya tank; (iv) Pajubata; (v) Jaba tank; (vi) Padi tank; (vii) Šidaviya; (viii) Karajaviya; (ix) Dataviya; (x) Kabaragama tank; (xi) Maducaya; (xii) Sivilaviya; (xiii) Vijita; (xiv) Culatisa; (xv) Padiya; (xvi) Patani tank; (xvii) Valimahamada; (xviii) Manikiragama tank (not Manikāragāmakavāpi in the western division); (xix) Nilavijita Mahavihara, present Debelgala Vihāra, 13 miles north-west of the 671 mile on the Anuradhapura-Trincomalee road. 48

Amgam-kuliya, a sub-district in the northern division (Uturupasa) of Rājaraṭṭha, is named in 3 inscriptions at Kahaṭagasdigiliya, Vēvälkäṭiya (at the 11th mile on the Madavacciya-Horovapotāna road), and Kirigollāva (at the 5th mile on the same road): it was an area corresponding to present Kandu and Pahala Kanda Tulānas. The Sīgiri Graffiti mention Ambgam-kuļi in Uturpas. The inscriptions mention:—(i) Demeļ Vehera at Kibinilam or Kibigama (present Vēvälkāṭiya); and (ii) Itnarugama (present Kirigollāva).49

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In an inscription of Kumāradāsa (508-516) at Nāgirikanda, 5 miles north-east of Madavacciya, the site is named Bamaṇagariya Vihara and the following tanks are mentioned:—(i) Mahagariya; (ii) Cugariya; (iii) Kabuba; (iv) Kaṭacanakapula; (v) Tavaa; (vi) Nilasa; (vii) Gajaa; and (viii) Paḍa.⁵⁰

An inscription of Sena II (853-887) at Kōlibāndāva, 3 miles south of the 8th mile on the Madavacciya-Horovapotāna road, names the site Kaṇgiri Vihāra.⁵¹

Handagala Vihāra, 3 miles north-west of Ratmalēgahēväva at the 12th mile on the Madavacciya-Horovapotāna road, is a picturesque site with numerous inscribed caves of the 2nd century B.C. to the 1st century. The place-names occurring in these inscriptions are:—(i) Paṇadika; (ii) Anuļapi tank; (iii) Nakoḍapika tank; (iv) Matalagama: this may be the same as Mahātālitagāma, north of Anurādhapura and on the Uttaradesa boundary, where the Pāṇḍyans inflicted their shattering defeat on the army of Sena I (831-855); (v) Naka-nakara: this name occurs also in the Tammanakanda inscription, 25 miles to the south, and may be the same as the 10th century Nānnaru, a place near Padaviya. 52

The ruins at *Karambankulama*, I mile from the 59th mile on the Anurādhapura-*Trincomalee* road, are called Naka Vihara in a 3rd century inscription there.⁵³

In an inscription of Dappula V (924-935)) at Ällēväva, near the 63rd mile on the Anurādhapura-Trincomalee road, the place Kuļaviṭiya (present Ällēväva) is mentioned.⁵⁴

Äṭavīragollāva, near the 7th mile on the Madavacciya-Horovapotāna road, is called Velangama in an inscription of Dappula IV
(924-935)⁵⁵

Uttamadevi Vihāra, to east of Anurādhapura, existed in the early centuries $A.C.^{56}$

The ruins and ancient sites in the Anurādhapura district with inscriptions which contain no topographical information or without inscriptions are too numerous for recapitulation.

(B). Cetiyapabbata Vihāra

Cetiyapabbatavihāra, called Seygiri or Sāgiri in Sinhalese literature and inscriptions, is modern *Mihintalē* Vihāra. According

^{47.} M. 34. 9: M.T. 625; E.M. 34. 9; A.I.C. 20; E.Z. I. 256; C.J.S. (G) I.

^{48.} E.Z. I. 211: III. 168, 179, 181: IV. 235; U.C.R. VII, No. 4, 246; A.S. 7th Rep. 47-50; Codrington, Coins, 195.

^{49.} E.Z. I. 246: II. 4; A.S. 7th Rep. 53; Sig. Graff, I. App. C.

^{50.} E.Z. IV. 123.

^{51.} C.J.S. (G) II. 111.

^{52. &#}x27;The Brahmi Inscriptions at Handagala Vihara', C.H.J. 224; E.Z. I. 198; M. 50. 14.

^{53.} A.S.C.A.R., 1892, 8.

^{54.} A.S. 7th Rep. 46.

^{55.} E.Z. II. 48.

^{56.} E.H.B. 103.

to the tradition, the Thera Mahinda and his companions alighted in B.C. 246 on the Sīla peak, on the open tableland Ambatthala, on Missakapabbata: then followed the meeting with king Devanampiya Tissa, the visit to Anuradhapura, the conversion of the king and the establishment of Buddhism as the religion of the Sinhalese people. The Cetiyapabbata Vihara on the Missaka mountain was founded by Devanampiya Tissa and presented to Mahinda. A sapling of the Bodhi Tree was planted there. Mahindaguhā or Theranambattha-lena on Ambatthala was the cave occupied by Mahinda Thera: the thera Lomasa Nāga lived later in the cave named Piyanguguhā: a third cave was known as Rājalena in Saddhā Tissa's time (B.C. 137-119). Cetiyapabbata was so named because numerous Cetiyas-Parakkamabāhu Î (1153-1186) is said to have restored 64 Cetivas there—were built on the hill at all levels from foot to summit. See E.Z. I. 81 and 82 for further historical details. Fa-Hsien (411-413) says that there were about 2,000 monks at Cetiyapabbata Vihāra in his time. In the 5th century the Vihāra passed into the control of the Mahāyāna fraternity of Abhayagiri Vihāra. Extensive repairs and restorations were carried out by Aggabodhi V (718-724): Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) also carried out some work of re-building.⁵⁷

The principal features of the Cetiyapabbata entourage were:—

- (i) The Tumbara forest: of the 32 mālakas, Mahinda Thera marked first the Tumbarū mālaka;⁵⁸
- (ii) Kaṇtaka or Kaṇḍaka Cetiya, built during or soon after the reign of Devānampiya Tissa (B.C. 247-207). Round the Kaṇtaka Cetiya were 68 rock-caves and 32 mālakas constructed by Devānampiya Tissa. Lañjatissa (B.C. 119-110) made a stone mantling for the Khandhaka or Kaṇṭaka Cetiya. In a 2nd century inscription in situ, it is called Kaṭaka-ceta. Mahādāṭhikamahānāga (7-19) held a great festival which became known as the Giribhaṇḍa festival. Udaya I (797-801) restored Giribhaṇḍa Vihāra. In the Mihintalē tablets of Mahinda IV (956-972) it is called Kiribaṇḍpavu dāgāba. Its modern name is Kiribat Vehera. 59
- (iii) Nāgacatukka or Nāgasoṇḍi pond, used as a batling tank by Mahinda thera and the monks of the Vihāra. Aggabodhi I (571-604) ensured a permanent supply of water for it. It is the present Nāgapokuņa.⁶⁰

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- (iv) A Cetiya to enshrine part of the Relics of Mahinda Thera was built by Uttiya towards the end of the 3rd century B.C. This Cetiya has been identified by Paranavitana as the smaller, ruined thūpa alongside the Mahāthūpa on the summit;⁶¹
- (v) Kuṭakaṇṇa Tissa (B.C. 44-22) built Silā Cetiya to east of the Uposatha House, and, enclosing it, Kaniṭṭha Tissa (167-186) built the Cetiyaghara or vaṭa-dā-gō: Gothābhaya (249-263) restored it. In the 3rd century Habarana inscription the Agivaḍanıana tank (present Hirivaḍuna tank at Habarana) was donated to Silaceta on Abatala (Ambatthala) in Cetagiri (Cetiyapabbata) Vihara; 62
- (vi) Kuṭakaṇṇa Tissa (B.C. 44-22) also built a great Uposatha House and he planted a Bodhi Tree. In the reign of Kaṇirajānutissa (29-32) there was a lawsuit over the Uposatha House and the king had thrown down to death on the Kanīra precipice 60 bhikkhus who were involved in treason;63
- (vii) The Ambatthala Mahāthūpa or Ambulu Cetiya, on the very summit of the hill, identified by Paranavitana as the present Mahāthūpa, the highest and largest thūpa at Mihintalē, was built by Mahādāṭhikamahānāga (7-19): at the 4 entrances were 4 bejewelled arches. Dhātusena (455-473) built the Ambatthala Vihāra and handed it over to the Mahāyāna fraternity. The Mihintalē tablets of Mahinda IV (956-972) mention Ambulu-dāgāba;⁶⁴
- (viii) A roadway round the hill with 4 gateways was constructed by Mahādāṭhikamahānāga (7-19);65
- (ix) 10 thūpas were built by Vasabha (67-111);66
- (x) Katthaka Cetiya was built by the queen of Udaya I (797-801);⁶⁷
- (xi) A Hospital was founded by Sena II (853-887); a 9th century inscription at a ruined building near the present entrance to the Vihāra refers to it as the Hospital at Sāgiri; 68
- (xii) The Hadayunha Parivena was built by the general of Kassapa IV (898-914) and donated to the Mahāyāna sect. 69

^{57.} M. 13. 20: 14. 1-65: 16. 1-18: 36. 106: 48. 7: 78. 108; E.H.B. 102-105: App. IB.

^{58.} M. 10. 2: 16. 15.

^{59.} M. 16. 12, 15: 33. 25: 34: 81: 49. 29; E.M. 16. 15: 33. 24; E.Z. I. 103:

^{60.} M. 14. 36: 16. 6: 42. 28.

^{61.} M. 20. 45.

^{62.} M. 35. 10, 11 : 36. 9, 106 ; A.I.C. 61 ; E.Z. III. 117, 179 : IV. 126 ; C.J.S. (G) II. 207.

^{63.} M. 34. 30. 31.

^{64.} M. 35. 10, 11: 34. 70-73: 38. 75, 76; Puj. 20; E.Z. I. 112; A.S.M. V, 8.

^{65.} M. 35. 81.

^{66.} M. 35. 81.

^{67.} M. 49. 23.

^{68.} M. 51. 73; A.S.C.A.R., 1910-11, 20: 1952. 40.

⁶⁹ M. 52. 18.

The *Mihintalē* tablets of Maliinda IV (956-972) mention, in addition to the foregoing, the following:—

- (i) Ät vehera (P. Anto-vihāra or Inner Monastery) in which were (a) the Dāgē or Vaṭa-Dā-Gē, that is, the Cetiyaghara built by Kaniṭṭha Tissa; and (b) the 'Check-room'; belonging to Ät-vehera were the dāgābas on Uḍgala and Yāṭgala, the upper and lower rocks;
- (ii) the Bat-ge or Refectory;
- (iii) the Maha-Boy-Gē, or Bodhi Tree House;
- (iv) Katumahasāya dāgāba;
- (v) Navaguņa Mahasāya dāgāba;
- (vi) Näțeviya Mahasāya, also called Näțägiri;
- (vii) Bond Vehera;
- (viii) Nayinda shrine;
- (ix) the House of the goddess Mininal;
- (x) Lahiniya-pavu and the two tanks on its upper and lower sides;
- (xi) Porodenī pokuņa; and
- (xii) Pahanāvil pond.70

In a B.C. cave inscription a son of Devanapiya Maharaja Gamani Abaya is styled Lonapi Aya Siva. In two other B.C. inscriptions a king is styled Kanagama Raja Tisa.⁷¹

The Chronicles record the following grants to Cetiyapabbata Vihāra:—(i) Kālamattika tank by Jeṭṭhatissa I (263-275); (ii) Mahindataṭa tank, present Bulankulam at Mihintalē, built and donated by Aggabodhi I (571-604); (iii) Ambillapadara village, by Aggabodhi III (629-639) and (iv) Kāṇavāpi by Sena I (833-853) q.v.⁷²

The several inscriptions at *Mihintalē* record numerous benefactions:—(I) the long, damaged inscription of Bhātikabhaya (B.C. 22-A.C. 7) names the following places:—(i) Pulekāvi tank; (ii) Yakasava canal; (iii) Vadaga canal; (iv) Paṇāsagāma, the same as Paṇahagama of the *Duṇumaḍalakanda* inscription; (v) Hamanakara canal; (vi) Aritagama and Kacaka-avuḍakagama in Nilarājiya sub-district, already dealt with; (vii) Kaliṇigāma tank in Mujitagāma-nakarika: this place, Mujitagama-nakara, is mentioned in several early inscriptions and in it were (a) Komatala tank, granted to Abhayagiri Vihāra, (b) Mataka tank, granted to the Mahāthūpa, and (c) Dakiṇigiri Karihija tank, granted to *Mihintalē*; (viii) Agaṇagāma or Agaṇakola, in which was Kabota-agaṇa tank; (ix) Nakaragaṇa tank; a Vihāra named Nagaraṅgaṇa in the eastern division was built by Mahāsiva

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early in the 2nd century B.C.; (x) Govakadatayihagāma tank; (xi) Cudalāgala tank in Amaratana sub-division; (xii) Ketavalaka tank in the same sub-division; (xiii) Vihirabijaka division, already dealt with;73 (2) Tambatikala is mentioned in an 8th century inscription: 74 (3) a field at Sandagama is mentioned as a donation in a 10th or 11th century inscription; 75 (4) the Mihintalē tablets of Mahinda IV (956-972) name the following villages and tanks as assigned to the Vihāra:—(i) Manuvāsara tank; (ii) Damgamiya or Damiya, a village assigned for the maintenance of Katu-mahasäya and the lay officials: Damgamu occurs in a 10th century inscription; (iii) Älgamiya, a maintenance village for Kiribandpavu dāgāba: this may be Älagamuva, near Käkirāva; (iv) Gutāgama, a maintenance village for the Relic House; (v) Karandagama, a maintenance village for the Image House: a Vihāra named Mahākarañiya existed in the 1st century; (vi) Talolagama; (vii) Sapugamiya; (viii) Vadu-devägama; (ix) Sunubol-devägama; (x) Dunumugama; (xi) Manguläva, which may be present Makuläva, 6 miles south-east of Galgamuva; (xii) Detisäsena; and (xiii) Minä tank,76

(C). Kalāgam Palāta

The $Kal\bar{a}$ Oya is called the Gona-nadi or Kālavāpi-nadī and the district through which it flowed in its lower course was known as the Gona or Gōna district.⁷⁷

Dhātusena (455-473) built Kālavāpi, present Kalāvāva, and Kālavāpi Vihāra. Twin with Kalāvāva was Balaļuvāva which still bears the same name, and was also built by Dhātusena. Presumably, though there is no statement to that effect, Dhātusena simultaneously built the Jaya Gangā, the artificial canal, now called Yōda-āļa, which conveys water a distance of 55 miles from Kalāvāva to Tissavāva at Anurādhapura and irrigates a large area along its course. Parakamabāhu I (1153-1186) restored Kālavāpi as well as the Jaya Gangā: an inscription of this king gives the length of the bund of Kālavāpi as 1,700 riyan. Aggabodhi I (571-604) erected an Uposatha House in Kālavāpi Vihāra, and Jeṭṭhatissa III (628) assigned the village of Lada to the Vihāra. Kālavāpi Vihāra is probably the temple now known as Vijitapura Vihāra at the northern end of the bund of Kalāvāva. The better-known Avukana Vihāra, about 2 miles distant, with its colossal, stone Image, was, as its inscriptions attest, in existence in the 1st

^{70.} E.Z. I. 75-113, 239.

^{71.} A.S.C.A.R., 1911-12, 95, 97; U.C.R. VII. 240.

^{72.} M. 36. 131: 42. 29: 44. 122.

^{73.} A.I.C. 60; M. 21. 2; E.Z. I. 70, 255.

^{74.} E.Z. IV. 148.

^{75.} A.S.C.A.R., 1911-12, 49.

^{76.} E.Z. I. 75-113: IV. 66; E.H.B. 123.

^{77.} M. 83. 17; N.S. 23; Puj. 42.

century. These early inscriptions name two tanks, Kalabutaka and Kalubaha. 78

Cūlābhaya (32-33) built Cūlagallaka Vihāra, also known as Gaggārāma, on the banks of the Goṇaka-nadī. The Commentaries mention Gaggaravāliya-aṅgaṇa. Aggabodhi II (604-614) built a Practising House in Cūlagalla Vihāra. Cūlagalla-raṭṭha is mentioned in the Commentaries.⁷⁹

Gonisa Vihāra was some distance to the north of the Kalā Oya.80

Kālavāpi-raṭṭha, the district around *Kalāvāva*, was the scene of much fighting in the civil war between Parakkamabāhu and Gajabāhu II. It was in Rājaraṭṭha, the territory of Gajabāhu. In it were (i) Kālavāpigāma, where Gajabāhu's commander was stationed, and (ii) Goṇagāmuka, the scene of a battle.⁸¹

Piliyāna is mentioned in an 8th century inscription at Tammana-gala, 4 miles north-west of $N\bar{a}gama$.

In the inscription of Udaya I (797-801) at Nāgama, 10 miles south-south-west of Kalāväva, the village Koļayunu (present Nāgama) situated in the sub-district Taṇabim, is assigned to the Image House at Abhayagiri Vihāra. Kolavāpi was donated by Silāmeghavaṇṇa (619-628) to the Stone Image at Abhayagiri Vihāra. 83

The village Ambilayāgu, near which was Nandivāpi, was close to the *Kalā Oya*. Ambilagrāma was a village assigned to Abhayagiri Vihāra. Ambilahāla Vihāra existed in the 1st century.⁸⁴

Canigama is mentioned in a pre-Christian cave inscription at $Maha\ \ddot{A}lagamuva\ Vih\bar{a}ra$, off the 54th mile on the $Dambulla-K\ddot{a}kir\bar{a}va$ road. This was a large monastery, with several caves, of early origin. 85

Mahādatta tank, built by Dhātusena (455-473), is also called Mādāta and ascribed to Aggabodhi II (604-614). Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110) and Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) both restored Mahādattika or Mahādatta tank. It is present Mādatugama, near the 51st mile on the Dambulla-Käkirūva road.⁸⁶

In the reign of Mahinda II (777-797) a rebel prince advanced from Kalāvāva to Sangagāma on the route to Anurādhapura.87

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Inscriptions of the 1st and 7th centuries at *Budugēhīnna* Vihāra, at the 20th mile on the *Kalāvāva-Galēvela* road, mention (i) Matukapika, and (ii) Aļakanuva tank.⁸⁸

Moggallāna II (531-551) made the following three tanks, the first by damming the Kadamba-nadi (Malvatta Oya):—(i) Pattapāsāņa tank: Pattapāsāņa was also the name of a sub-district and I am informed by Dr. Paranavitana that Patpahan-bim occurs in unpublished medieval inscriptions in the Nāccaduva area, so that Pattapāsāna tank must be present Nāccaduva tank: Vijavabāhu I (1055-1110) and Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) restored Pattapāsāna tank; two villages in this district were granted to the Jetthārāma monastery built by the queen of Aggabodhi IV (667-683): also granted to this monastery was the village Buddhabhelagama; (ii) Dhanavāpi tank: a district named Dhanapitthi or Valpita is mentioned in the reign of Datta (683-684) who built Datta Vihāra in it: (In a Paper in U.C.R. XVI, 70, and (iii) Garītara tank.89 Professor Paranavitana identifies Dhanavāpi or Danāväva as the earlier name of Padivāpi).

(D). Hurulu Palāta

The Pāli Chronicles, strangely, contain no reference to the original construction of the largest of the ancient reservoirs, Padīvāpi, now known as Padaviya: a Sinhalese Chronicle ascribes the work to Saddhā Tissa (B.C. 137-119) but it is extremely doubtful whether so large a tank could have been constructed at this early period. Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) restored Padīvāpi and an inscription of this king states that the length of the bund was 3,200 riyan. Nissanka Malla (1187-1196) decreed Padīvāpi a sanctuary for animals. The surrounding district was known as Padī-raṭṭha and was in Uttarapassa (the northern province). A 10th century inscription at Moragoda, near Padaviya, mentions the sub-district Pädinnaru-kuliya, the local area around Moragoda and the tank. In the reign of Parakkamabāhu II (1236-1271) Padīraṭṭha was under occupation by Tamil invaders, but his successor, Vijayabahu IV (1271-1273) brought over to his side the Sinhalese dwelling there. 90

An inscription of Kassapa V (914-923) at Ayiṭigēväva, 2 miles south-east of Käbiṭṭigollāva, records the donation of Demelinheṭihaya (present Ayiṭigēväva) situated in Loholuvila-Kuliya (the sub-district around Käbiṭṭigollāva) to the Tisaram Nunnery at Anurādhapura. 91

^{78.} M. 38. 42, 46: 42. 28: 44. 101: 79. 32, 59; Puj. 27; A.S.C.A.R., 1937, 10; U.C.R. VIII, No. 2, 120, 122.

^{79.} M. 35. 13: 42. 49; D. 21. 39; E.H.B. 126; U.C.R. I. 89.

^{80.} M. 38. 21-24. There was no Vihara by this name—see U.C.R., XV, 127.

^{81.} M. 70. 68, 70.

^{82.} E.Z. IV. 149.

^{83.} M. 44. 69; E.Z. II. 19.

^{84.} M. 38. 14, 15; E.Z. I. 6; E.H.B. 83.

^{85.} A.S.C.A.R., 1894, 6.

^{86.} M. 38, 47; 60. 48; Puj. 28.

^{87.} M. 48. 91.

^{88.} A.S.C.A.R., 1893, 10.

^{89.} M. 40. 61: 46. 27, 28, 41-43: 60. 50: 70. 34; N.S. 17; Puj. 30; Raj. 57.

^{90.} M. 79. 34: 83. 16: 88. 64; Puj. 19; E.Z., I. 206: II. 142; A.S.C.A.R., 1937, 10.

^{91.} E.Z. II. 37.

An inscription of Bhātikatissa (143-167) at $Pahala\ Usgollāva$, 4 miles north-east of $K\ddot{a}bit\!t\!tigollāva$, records the grant of the Mahatubari tract of fields to a monastery. 92

Gälinduru Gomandla (present $Ramb\bar{a}va$) is mentioned in an inscription of Udaya I (797-801) at $Ramb\bar{a}va$, near the north-west corner of the large, breached Vahalkada tank.⁹³

Posonavulla (present *Iripinniyāva*) in Sulinnarugama is referred to in an inscription of Udaya I (797-801) at *Iripinniyāva*, 2 miles west of *Vahalkaḍa* tank: the Hoya (present *Mora Oya*) and the dam across it (now in ruin, one mile south of the village) are also mentioned.⁹⁴

Two inscriptions of the 5th century at *Labuäṭabändigala*, 7 miles north of *Horovapotāna* on the *Kapugollāva* road, mention (i) Devagiriya Vihara, the site of the inscription, and (ii) the village Niṭalaviṭiya.⁹⁵

A pre-Christian cave inscription at *Maha Kapugollāva* on the *Horovapotāna-Kapugollāva* road, records the grant of a cave by the village corporation of Tubaḍavasaka.⁹⁶

The ruins at Ataviyalgala, 2 miles south of the 87th mile on the Anurādhapura-Trincomalee road, are named Toṭahumaṇakaraka Vihara in two 1st century inscriptions in situ. The name suggests a ford, but the river $(Y\bar{a}n\ Oya)$ is now $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles distant.

In an inscription of Gajabāhu I (114-136) at *Vilēvāva*, 2 miles east of the 78th mile on the Anurādhapura-*Trincomalee* road, the place is called Kubaragama.⁹⁷

Hidatagamaka is mentioned in a 1st century inscription at Veherabändigala, 3 miles from Horovapotāna on the Madavacciya road.

At Rasnakaväva Vihāra, 3 miles north of the 16th mile on the Madavacciya-Horovapotāna road, a series of inscriptions of the 2nd century contain the following place-names:—(i) Marapagiriya Vihara, the ancient name of present Rasnakaväva Vihāra; (ii) Dahaṇakara; (iii) Tojanahinaka; (iv) Abeḍavaranayagama; (v) Cuļaviya; (vi) Karaviṭiya; (vii) Matavihikaviya; (viii) Tabeta; (ix) Alagoḍaka tank; (x) Paļavasaya; (xi) Abalavasaya; and (xii) Pekarevasaka, the same, probably, as Pikaravasaka of the Pahala Tammanāva inscription below.98

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The ruins at *Pahala Tammanāva*, I mile east of the 11th mile on the *Ratmalēgahēvāva-Kābiṭṭṭgollāva* road, are named Majimagama Vihara in two inscriptions of the 2nd century *in situ*: also mentioned are:—(i) Pikaravasaka, vide above; (ii) Ravakaviṭṭya; (iii) Maṇiaviya tank; (iv) Hanagamaka; and (v) Mataviya.

At Ācāraviṭṭhigāma or Avuruviṭigama, 3 yojanas or 12 gav (20 to 30 miles) north-east of Anurādhapura, gold is said to have been found in the reign of Duṭṭhagāmaṇi Abhaya (B.C. 161-137): the place would have been in the area Ratmalēgahēväva-Käbiṭṭṭgollāva.⁹⁹

Kumbukväva Vihāra, I mile east of the 4th mile on the Kahaṭa-gasdigiliya-Ratmalēgahēväva road, is called Nakapavata Vihara in a 3rd century inscription in situ.¹⁰³

Galkandēgamakanda, 3½ miles north of the 72nd mile on the Anurādhapura-Trincomalee road, is called Piyakapasaņa in a pre-Christian cave inscription there. Possibly connected with it was Piyagal Piriveṇa built by Aggabodhi IV (667-683). Also mentioned in the early inscriptions at Galkandēgamakada is Padikaragamaka.¹⁰¹

Danateka village is named in a pre-Christian inscription at *Bambarahela*, 3 miles south-south-east of the 67th mile on the Anurādhapura-*Trincomalee* road. 102

In an inscription of Gajabāhu I (II4-I36) at the *Tāmaragala* ruins, 2 miles from the 7th mile on the *Sīppikulama-Galenbindunuväva* road, the site is named Gutapavata Vehera, and the following placenames occur:—(i) Pahaṇaviya; (ii) tracts of fields named Hajiya, Culavika, Mahahumanaka, Hadavika, Utara-araka, and Sivayika. 103

At $Vadakahagalah\bar{\imath}nna$, near $Kokob\bar{e}$, the place Humanajanalikeya is mentioned in a pre-Christian inscription, and the village Mahagama in a 2nd century inscription.

A 4th century inscription at Aminicciya, about I mile north-east of the 28th mile on the Eastern Minor Road, names the following places:—(i) Ala Abagama in Pajinapasa (the eastern division); (ii) Davacakapatagama; (iii) Abamavipatagama; (iv) Vajiyava tank; (v) Kada-aviya tank; (vi) Vadabalagamaka tank; (vii) Navada-aviya tank; (viii) Mahavava; and (ix) Vijagamaka. 104

There are 4 inscriptions of kings of the 3rd century at the ruins called *Veheragala*, near *Timbiriväva*, 2½ miles east of the 28th mile on the *Eastern Minor Road*, in which the site is named Gagapavata Vihara, situated in the sub-district called Gagavi: two tanks, one also called Gagavi, and the other Tinisatiya, are mentioned. The

^{92.} A.S.C.A.R., 1892, 9.

^{93.} E.Z. I. 175.

^{94.} E.Z. I. 169.

^{95.} E.Z. III. 250-252.

^{96.} J.R.A.S. (C.B.), New Series, V, 71.

^{97.} A.S. 7th Rep. 58; E.Z. III. 249.

^{98.} A.S.C.A.R., 1892, 7; E.Z. IV. 228; U.C.R. VIII, 120.

^{99.} M. 28. 13; Thv. 71.

^{100.} A.I.C. 63; Codrington, Coins, 195.

^{101.} Puj. 29; Raj. 57; E.Z. I. 53.

^{102.} A.S. 7th Rep. 53.

^{103.} A.I.C. 12.

^{104.} A.S. 7th Rep. 54; E.Z. III. 181, 250.

name Gagapavata implies a site by the river, but the river (Yān Oya) is now 2 miles away and appears to have changed its course in historical times—see also Toṭahumaṇakaraka above. 105

The ruins at Galapitagala, near the 9th mile on the Maradankadavala-Habarana road, are called Devagiri in a 1st century inscription there. 106

Hakulaviya is mentioned in a 1st century inscription at Hittaragama-hīnna, near Ganēvalpola. 107

Gavaratissa Vihāra, also called Varārāma and Gavaravāla-angaṇa, was founded by Bhātikatissa (143-167). The same king built and donated to this Vihāra, Mahāmaṇi or Gāmaṇi tank. Later, Mahāmaṇi tank, also called Mahamiṇiya, is ascribed to Mahāsena (275-301). Aggabodhi III (628) gave the village Mahāmaṇikagāma to Jetavana Vihāra. The Sīgiri Graffiti mention Mahamiṇiviya. Mahāmaṇi and its variants stand for modern Māmiṇiya, the name of a Kōralē, village and tank, 3 miles south-east of Maradankaḍavala. 108

The ruins at Kāvarakkulam, 2 miles north-west of the 12th mile on the Eastern Minor Road, are called Rana Vihara in a 2nd century inscription.¹⁰⁹

Mahānikkhavaṭṭi tank, also called Mahānikkhaviṭṭi, Mānākäṭi and Mānikaväṭi, was built by Vasabha (67-111), and is present Mānankäṭṭiya, near the 12th mile on the Eastern Minor Road. 110

Mahāsena (275-301) built Challūra tank also called Surālla and Suralla. Later, Surulu tank is ascribed to Dhātusena (455-473). At Surulla, in Maharaṭṭha, a part of Parakkamabāhu's forces was trapped and later relieved. All these names refer to present *Huruluvāva*, recently restored, near *Yakālla* on the *Eastern Minor Road*. 111

Aritthagiri, present Ritigala, the highest mountain range in Nuvarakäläniya, which runs parallel to the Eastern Minor Road from the 4th to the 8th mile, is first mentioned as the fortified refuge where Paṇḍukabhaya established himself for 7 years in the 4th century B.C. At the foot of the mountain, Sūratissa, early in the 2nd century B.C. built Makulaka or Maṇgula Vihāra. (Makulaka will be discussed later). In an inscription of 2nd B.C. at Ritigala, the foundation of the village Arita-mahagama is recorded; another inscription of 1st B.C. records the grant to Arita Vihara of Abadalaka tank. Lañjatissa (B.C. 119-110) extended Arittha Vihāra. Sena I (831-851)

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built on Ariṭṭhagiri a large, well-equipped and richly endowed Vihāra for the Paṁsukūlika bhikkhus. In this king's inscription at *Kivulī-kaḍa* he is styled the founder of Riṭigal-aram. The Sīgiri Graffiti mention Riṭgal. 112

From Girilaka, Duṭṭhagāmaṇi Abhaya advanced to Mahēlanagara. In a 5th century inscription at Anurādhapura, the town of Mahelaka or Makalaka is mentioned. The Makulaka Vihāra was at the foot of Riṭigala (see under Ariṭṭhagiri above). If the equation Mahēlanagara—Mahelaka—Makalaka—Makulaka is correct, then Mahēlanagara was near Riṭigala. At the spot where Duṭṭhagāmaṇi turned aside from the road to Anurādhapura in order to march on Mahēlanagara, he founded the village of Nivattagiri. 113

The next point of Dutthagamani's advance beyond Mahelanagara was Kāsapabbata, also called Kālapabbata, Kasāgalbada and Kasāgalugama. It was at this same Kāsapabbata that Pandukābhaya, nearly two centuries earlier, had begun his eastward march. Geiger identifies Kāsapabbata with Kahagalgama, 18 miles south-east of Anuradhapura, but this name does not appear on modern maps and village lists: there is a Kahallegama between Eruväva and Labunoruva. Near Kāsapabbata was the town Pana, also called Palonagara; this place is identical with Pajjotanagara which was named after Pajjota tank which Dutthagamani built near Kasapabbata. The Sigiri Graffiti mention Polonaru. In an inscription of Vasabha (67-111) Palo-nakaraka tank in Tihalaka district and the assembly at Tiragama are mentioned. Aggabodhi II (604-614) built a Practising House at Palamnagara Vihāra. Tiragama appears to be identical with Terigāma, southward of Anurādhapura, where Parakkamabāhu's forces won a decisive victory. Close to Kāsapabbata, Dutthagāmani built the tank Kulantavāpi or Kulatthavāpi or Kalatāvāva, present Kalattāva.114

Paṇḍukābhaya, in the 4th century B.C., fought his decisive battle at Lābugāmaka (near Ariṭṭhapabbata), identified by Geiger as present Labunōruva. In an inscription of the 1st century at Vadakahagala (Tammanagala), 2½ miles north-north-east of Labunōruva, the name Labunakara occurs: Lābugāmaka of the 4th century B.C., Labunakara of the 1st century, and modern Labunōruva are one and the same place, a remarkable instance of the survival of a village name for over 2,000 years. Other places named in the Vadakahagala (Tammanagala)

^{105.} A.S. 7th Rep. 55; E.Z. IV. 227.

^{106.} A.S.C.A.R., 1893, 10.

^{107.} J.R.A.S. (C.B.), New Series, V. 76.

^{108.} D. 22. 9, 20; M. 36. 2, 3: 37. 47: 44. 21; Puj. 24; Raj. 52; E.H.B. App. IB; Sig. Graff. I, App. C.

^{109.} A.S.C.A.R., 1893, 7.

^{110.} M. 35. 94; E.M. 35. 95; Puj. 21; Raj. 52.

^{111.} M. 37. 47: 72. 131-140; Puj. 24, 27; Raj. 52.

^{112.} M. 21. 6: 33. 27: 50. 63, 64; E.M. 21. 6; E.Z. I. 135: III. 291; Sig. Graff. I, App. C.

^{113.} M. 25. 48; M.T. 480, 3; E.M. 25. 102; N.S. 26; E.Z. III. 122.

^{114.} M. 10. 27: 22. 50: 25. 21, 51, 66: 42. 49: 70. 133-147; E.M. 10. 36: 25. 162; M.T. 480, 18; Raj. 40; E.Z. I. 70; Sig. Graff. I, App. C.

inscription are:—(i) Madukola; (ii) Eraka; (iii) Niliba; (iv) Naka-nakara (P. Nāga-nagara), already mentioned under *Handa-gala Vihāra*; (v) Vahanikupiḍa; (vi) Acavivika; and (vii) Mayiha. 115

The construction of Mahatombuva or Mātombu tank is ascribed to Jetthatissa I (263-275) and to Aggabodhi II (604-614). Aggabodhi IV (667-683) built the Māṭambiya Practising House. The names Mahatombuva, Mātombu and Māṭambiya appear to be preserved in modern Māṭombuva Kōralē and Tulāna. To the Practising House were assigned:—(i) Ambavāpi at Būkakalla; (ii) Tantavāyikacāṭika village; and (iii) Niṭṭthilaveṭṭhi village.¹¹⁶

Veluvaņa Vihāra, also called Velunnā Vehera, in Gangavita or Gaganāvita, was built by Aggabodhi II (604-614) and made over to the Sāgali sect. King Saṃghatissa defeated in battle east of Anurādhapura, went to Veluvaṇa Vihāra where he assumed a monk's robes: he was proceeding thence to cross the Mahaväli Ganga and escape into Rohaṇa when he was detected and seized at Minnēriya. It is clear, therefore, that Veluvaṇa Vihāra was westward of Minnēriya and probably in Māṭombuva Kōralē. In the inscription of Mahinda IV (956-972) at Abhayagiri Vihāra, it is stated that he repaired the pāsāda at Viļuvana Vihāra. Jeṭṭhatissa III (628) granted the Vihāra the village Kakkhalaviṭṭhi. 117

Aggivaddhamānaka tank, also called Abhivaddhamānaka, Akvadunnā and Abivadunna, was built by Vasabha (67-111). In the *Habarana* inscription of the 3rd century, Agivadamana tank, present *Hirivadunna* tank, I mile from *Habarana*, is mentioned: it was donated to Sila Ceta on Abatala at Cetagiri (*Mihintalē*). 118

Sumanavāpi or Samanväva was 4 yojanas or 12 gav (30 to 40 miles) south-east of Anurādhapura and precious stones are said to have been found there in the reign of Duṭṭhagāmaṇi Abhaya (B.C. 161-137). It was probably in the *Habarana* area. Aggabodhi I (571-604) built Sumanapabbata Vihāra in Kelivāta.¹¹⁹

Koviļāragāma and Mahummāra or Mahāummara were close together and situated between Anurādhapura and the *Mahaväli Ganga*. The latter village was granted to Jayasenapabbata Vihāra, built by the queen of Udaya I (797-801) for Damila bhikkhus.¹²⁰

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115. M. 10. 72; A.S.C.A.R., 1893, 7.
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CHAPTER XX

THE CITY OF PULATTHINAGARA (POLONNARUVA)

The earliest lithic record of human habitation at Polonnaruva is a short cave inscription of the 1st century. The first allusion to the place in the Chronicles is a reference to the construction of the tank Topavava in the reign of Upatissa I (365-406). But its antiquity goes back to much earlier times because there are good grounds for identifying Polonnaruva, or a place very close to it, with the fortress named Vijitanagara where a decisive battle was fought about B.C. 16; between the forces of Dutthagamani Abhaya and the foreign ruler. Elāra. The position of Polonnaruva was one of great strategic importance since it commanded the crossings of the Mahaväli Ganga. the defence of which was vital against rebel forces advancing into Rajarattha from Rohana: at the same time, in the event of invasion by a South Indian power, its position was distant enough to give time for the organisation and manning of the river defences so as to halt the invading forces on the river line, and, furthermore, if those defences failed, to facilitate retreat into Rohana. So that it gave greater security to the king from his enemies both within and outside the kingdom.1

The first king to found a Monastery at Polonnaruva was Aggabodhi III (628) who built the Mahāpānadīpa Vihāra there. Aggabodhi IV (667-683) temporarily removed the seat of government from Anuradhapura to Polonnaruva and died at Polonnaruva. This was the first of several occasions on which the kings vacated Anuradhapura and went into temporary residence at Polonnaruva on account of invasion or civil war. Hence, it came to be called Kandavura-nuvara or 'the camp-city'. Aggabodhi VII (772-777) ruled from Polonnaruva during the latter part of his reign and died there. Mahinda II (777-797) built the Sanniratittha Vihāra and added a Parivena to the existing Dāma Vihāra, both at Polonnaruva. Udaya I (797-801) built a Hospital at Polonnaruva. During the reign of Sena I (833-853) the Pandyans invaded Ceylon and inflicted a crushing defeat on the Sinhalese army: the king fled from Anuradhapura, and regained his throne only by surrendering all his regalia and treasure and paying a very heavy tribute, and thereafter he resided at Polonnaruva. He built there the Senaggabodhi Shrine, an adjacent Alms Hall beside Thusavāpi (Topāvava), another Alms Hall in Mahanettapabbata Vihāra, and a Hospital to west of the town. Sena V (972-982) reigned at Polonnaruva during a very disturbed time. Anurādhapura continued to be the capital in the 8th, 9th and 10th centuries although

1. A.S.C.A.R., 1911-12, 100; Puj. 26; Ruj. 54; M. 25. 19.

^{116.} M. 46. 19; Puj. 24, 28.

^{117.} M. 42. 43: 44. 13-30: 44. 99; Puj. 28; Raj. 56; E.Z. I. 227.

^{118.} D. 22. 7, 8; M. 35. 95; Puj. 21; Raj. 47; A.I.C. 61; C.J.S. II. 207; E.Z. III. 117, 179: IV. 126.

^{119.} M. 28. 18: 42. 19; Thv. 162.

^{120.} M. 48. 121, 156; 49. 24.

Polonnaruva was, from time to time, for military reasons, temporarily used as a royal residence.²

In 993 occurred the Cola conquest which lasted till 1070. Ceylon became a feudatory province of the Cola Empire and the Cola Vicerov established his seat at Polonnaruva, which was re-named Jananāthamangalam. When, at the end of 77 years of foreign rule, Vijayabāhu I liberated the Sinhalese people, he celebrated his consecration as king at Anuradhapura, but shortly afterwards transferred the capital to Polonnaruva. Thus, in 1070 Polonnaruva replaced Anurādhapura as the capital City of Lanka. Vijayabahu I walled the City and built a Palace and a Temple of the Tooth. 43 years of internal disruption followed the death of Vijayabāhu I in 1110. Then Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) united the whole Island under his sovereignity and inaugurated an era of power and prosperity which endured for half a century. His reign constitutes an epic period in Ceylon history. Though not the founder, he was certainly the builder of Polonnaruva. He enlarged and embellished the town, fortifying it securely and adding to it many new, stately buildings. Nissanka Malla (1187-1196), whose vainglorious inscriptions are so prolific at Polonnaruva, succeeded Parakkamabāhu I. He continued the constructional work of his predecessor and added to the City some of its most handsome structures. After his death began decline. In 1215 came the invader Magha, a Kālinga, 'the scourge of Lanka', who conquered Rājaraṭṭha and ruled from Polonnaruva for 21 years, subjecting the people to wholesale pillage, plunder and oppression. This period of great tribulation was continued for 8 years after his death by his commanders. The Sinhalese monarchy established itself at Dambadeniya and began gradually to regain its lost possessions: in 1244 Polonnaruva was besieged and a decisive victory was won. But the expulsion of Magha's followers was followed by a new conquest by the Javanese, Candabhānu, who ravaged the country anew. The Sinhalese king, Parakkamabāhu II, and his warrior son, Vijavabāhu, completely defeated Candabhānu in 1268: he celebrated a festival of consecration at Polonnaruva but neither he nor his son resided there. The capital continued to be Dambadeniya. Two invasions by the Pandyans followed: the second took place about 1283 and the Pandyans ruled from Polonnaruva for about 20 years till their own Empire fell to the Muhammadans. From 903 to 1070 Polonnaruva was the seat of the Cola Governor of Ceylon. Sinhalese kings reigned there from 1070 to 1215. nearly 150 years. Then foreign conquerors again occupied the City till it was temporarily wrested from them in 1268 when some work of repair and restoration was attempted, but very shortly afterwards it was finally abandoned by Sinhalese rulers. Polonnaruva reached its peak of

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magnificence in that period of about 50 years when Parakkamabāhu I and Nissanka Malla sat upon its Lion Throne.³

Vijavabāhu I, who became king over all Ceylon in 1070, built the first wall round the City: it was a high, strong wall with many bastions, and it was surrounded by a broad, deep moat. Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) remodelled the City. A chain of walls enclosed the town on all sides. Within the outer chain were 3 walls decreasing in size. Within the innermost chain was a secondary chain of walls which enclosed the Citadel or Royal Enclosure The walls were pierced by 14 gates. The outer chain of walls appears to have crumbled away, but the inner chain is in a fair state of preservation. The west wall was really the bund of Parakkamasamudda whose huge sheet of water protected the City on the north-west, west and south-west. The most westerly part of the City was a Promontory which projected into Parakkamasamudda and was called the Dippuyana or 'Island Garden': on it were bathing pools, the Audience Hall, Council Chamber and other buildings, and it was territory reserved for the use of the king and the court. Adjoining it on the east was the Citadel or Royal Enclosure at the southern end of which stood the Palace. Outside the southeastern part of the Citadel was the Nandana Park, a pleasure garden for the king. Adjacent to the Citadel on the north was the Terrace on which stood the Temple and appurtenant fanes for the Tooth Relic. The whole area to north of the Citadel for about 2 miles was occupied by Monasteries. There were no religious edifices within the walled space south and east of the Citadel. The City had 3 suburbs on the north, east and south.4

Dīppūyana or 'Promontory'

The Dippūyana was laid out by Parakkamabāhu I who built within it :—(i) the Dhavalāghāra or 'White House', made entirely of stucco; (ii) the Vijjāmaṇḍapa, a Vimāna built 'to show forth the various branches of science'; (iii) the Dolāmaṇḍapa or 'Swing Pavilion'; (iv) the Kiļāmaṇḍapa or 'Sports Pavilion'; (v) the Sanimaṇḍapa or 'Pavilion of Saturn', made of ivory; (vi) the Moramaṇḍapa or 'Peacock Pavilion'; (vii) the Ādāṣamaṇḍapa or 'Mirror Pavilion' whose walls were mirrored; (viii) the Singāravimāna of 4 storeys, adorned with pictures; (ix) the Anantapokkharaṇī, a pond of stone whose layers resembled the coils of the Serpent king. Ananta; and (x) the Cittāpokkharaṇī or 'Picture 'Pond', adorned with pictures.⁵

None of the ruins on the *Promontory* can be identified with any of the buildings or ponds mentioned above and it is evident that Parakkamabāhu's arrangement of the Dīppūyana was considerably

- 3. M. Caps. 60, 73, 78, 79, 80, 88.
- 4. M. 60. 1-15: 73. 57-60, 160-163.
- 5. M. 73. 113-123; E.Z. II. 145, 133: IV. 43; C. J.S. II. 137.

^{2.} M. 44. 122 : 46. 34-38 : 48. 74 : 48. 134 : 49. 19 : 50. 85-86 : 50. 73-75 : 54. 64-72 : 60. 2-23 : C.J.S. (G) II. 41.

altered by Nissanka Malla: the Chronicles contain no account of these alterations but Nissanka Malla's inscriptions give the purpose of two of the structures:—(i) a stone pokuṇa was ' the bathing pond where His Majesty completed the ceremony of bathing', and (ii) the Council Chamber held the Lion Throne, the seat of the Yūvarāja, and the positions, denoted by inscriptions on the pillars, occupied by the high dignitaries assembled in Council. An inscribed stone seat close by was used by Nissanka Malla while watching dancing and listening to music in the Kālinga Park: if this seat has not been moved from an original site elsewhere, it has to be assumed that the Dīppūyana was re-named the Kālinga Park by Nissanka Malla.

The Citadel or Royal Enclosure

Within the Citadel or Royal Enclosure stood the king's Palace and its appurtenant buildings. Vijayabāhu I built the first Palace at Polonnaruva. During the revolt of the Vēļaikkāras this Palace was burnt down. Parakkamabāhu I built a Palace, called the Vejayanta Palace, of 7 storeys and 1,000 apartments, magnificently decorated and equipped. Nissanka Malla states in one of his inscriptions:— 'having beheld the Palace which a former king had erected in 7 years and 7 months and declaring' a Monarch like Us should live in a Palace worthy of Us' King Nissanka Malla caused to be built, with incomparable magnificence, in 45 days a new Palace of 7 storeys'. Nissanka Malla's assertions are not all to be taken literally: we may infer here that he enlarged and embellished the Palace built by Parakkamabāhu I.

Appurtenant to the Palace, Parakkamabāhu I built:—(i) the Hemamandira, for carrying out the ceremonies of expiation by Brāhmaṇas; (ii) the Dhāraṇīghara, for recitation of magic incantations; (iii) the Maṇḍalamandira, for listening to Jātaka stories; (iv) the Pañcasattatimandira, for reception of magic water and magic thread; (v) a Sermon House, adorned with golden Images; (vi) the Sarassatīmaṇḍapa, with golden pillars and paintings, for music and dancing; (vii) the Rājavesibhujaiga-maṇḍapa, 3-storeyed, surrounded by vedikās and decorated with coloured paintings: the ruins of this handsome structure survive; and (viii) the Ekatthamba Pāsāda ('One-pillar Pāsāda'), tall, ending in a makara spire and adorned with a golden chamber.

On ground adjoining the Royal Enclosure, Parakkamabāhu I laid ont the Nandana Park in which were many varieties of fruit and flowering trees and the following structures:— (i) A Bath House with (?) shower-baths and a (?) fountain; (ii) a Pavilion with pillars of sandalwood, containing an octagonal mandapa resembling an earornament; (iii) a Mandapa which had 'the charm of a wreath of serpentine wanderings'; (iv) the Silāpokkharaṇī, now called Kumārapokuṇa; (v) the Nandāpokkharaṇī; (vi) a Pond

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holding perfumed water ; (vii) the Vasanta cave ; (viii) the Mangala-pokkharaṇī. Later, the Nandana Park was extended, re-named Lakkhuyyāna and made over to the Sangha: two ponds below hollow rocks were constructed for the monks to bathe in.⁷

The Tooth Relic Terrace or 'Quadrangle'

The Tooth Relic Terrace or Quadrangle was an elevated enclosure on which stood, according to the Chronicles and the inscriptions in situ, the following structures:—(i) The Daladage or Tooth Relic Temple. The first Temple of the Tooth was built by Vijavabāhu I and is the ruin now called Vihāra No. 2. Parakkamabāhu I built a second Daladage in the 'middle of the town', but this was probably a temporary building for public exposition of the Relic after its recovery from the rebel queen Sugalā. Nissanka Malla built a third Daladāgē of stone, said to have been completed in 60 hours: Vijayabāhu IV restored it and it is the ruin now called the $\check{H}\ddot{a}ta-d\bar{a}-g\ddot{e}$: (ii) A splendid Pāsāda with a 'moonlight terrace' and adorned with paintings was built in honour of the Tooth Relic by Mahinda, a high dignitary of Parakkamabāhu I: this is probably the building now called Thūpārāma; (iii) Nissanka Malla built, on the Tooth Relic Terrace the Ratnagiri Vatageya or Vata-dā-gē, by which latter name it is still known; (iv) the Nissanka-latā-mandapaya, so known today, was built by Nissanka Malla: from it he worshipped the Tooth Relic.8

In the area immediately outside and to north of the Tooth Relic Terrace were:—(i) a 11th century Cōļa temple named Vāṇavaṇ-mādēvi Iśvaramuḍaiyar, now known as Siva Dēvalē No. 2; (ii) an Alms Hall named Tribhuvanāsraya Nissanka Satraya built by Nissanka Malla: to it was assigned the Satrodyānaya orchard whose boundaries were:—the Kāmboji gate on the south, the spill and moat on the north, the city wall on the east, and Nissankasamudra (by which name Nissanka Malla re-named Parakkamasamudda) on the west; (iii) the Ratanavālī Thūpa or Ruvanväli Dāgāba, now known as Rankot Vehera, was, according to the Chronicle, restored by Nissanka Malla, but that monarch in his inscription claims to have built it; and (iv) Gopālapabbata, a small group of rocks where a cave monastery was established in the 1st century: a 4th century inscription gives its name as Culagala Vihara.

^{6.} A.S.C.A.R., 1901. 11, 12: 1900. 8, 9, 10.

^{7.} M. 60. 38: 73. 60-70, 71-112; E.Z. II. 95, 55, 162; C.J.S. (G) II. 208 209.

^{8.} M. 60. I-14: 73. I24-I35: 74. I98: 80. I9: 88. I0-I7; Puj. 34; Raj. 60; E.Z. II. 89, 90, I21, 176; C.J.S. (G) II. 167.

^{9.} M. 78. 65 : 80. 20 ; Puj. 34 ; E.Z. II. 136, 141 ; A.S.C.A.R., 1906., 26, 27: 1911-12, 100.

Ālāhana Parivena

Parakkamabāhu I built the large monastery named the Āļāliana Pariveṇa. Its limits were marked by 10 boundary stones and it comprised:—(i) the Lańkātilaka Image House of 5 storeys, decorated with figures of flowers, creepers, gods and brāhmas and enclosing a colossal, standing Image of the Buddha. Vijayabāhu IV restored the building. Its ruins still bear the same name; (ii) Rūpavatī Thūpa built by queen Rūpavatī of Parakkamabāhu I: this is probably the present *Kiri-vehera*; (iii) Subhaddā Cetiya; (iv) the Baddhasīmā Pāsāda, the Uposatha House of the Monastery, of 12 storeys, with turrets, apartments, halls and cells: its ruins have been conserved; (v) Khanḍasīmā, a sacred space; (vi) a Pāsāda, for the Mahāthera, of 3 storeys; and (vii) several other appurtenant and subsidiary buildings.¹⁰

The Northern Monasteries

To north of the Alahana Parivena were:—(i) Uttararama, now called Galvihāra, built by Parakkamabāhu I by breaking down the rock near the Mahathupa or Damila Thupa and constructing 3 caves, (a) the Vijiādhara cave, (b) the cave with the Sedent Image, and (c) the cave with the Recumbent Image; (ii) Mahathupa or Damila Thupa, to build which Parakkamabahu employed Damila prisoners-of-war: it was intended to be the largest thupa in Ceylon, but the original plan was abandoned and a disproportionate dome was superimposed on the vast basal terraces: it is now known as Unagalavehera: (iii) Jetavanārāma, the largest monastic establishment at Polonnaruva, built by Parakkamabāhu I. It comprised:—(a) the Tiyanka Image House for the Tiyanka Image, now popularly known as Demala-mahasāva; (b) a beautiful, circular Temple of stone for the Tooth Relic: this is the circular ruin to south of the Tivanka Image House; (c) 8 stone ponds, of which 4 are named:— Vattanahānakottha, Guhānahānakottha, Padumanahānakottha, the present Lotus Bath, and Bhaddanahānakottha; (d) a vast Pāsāda for the Mahathera Sariputta; and (e) several other smaller buildings. The Nammadā canal branched off from the Candabhāgā canal by the corner of Jetavanārāma.11

Other Structures

Nissanka Malla built the Priti-danaka-mandapaya near the north end of the tank, and close to it the Nissanka-dana-vinoda-mandapaya.

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He also built the Nissanka Vihāra, which appears to be the same as Polonnaru Vihāra, and 3 Alms Halls named Brāhmaṇasatra, Bauddhasatra and Bahujanasatra. ¹²

Parakkamabāhu I also built:—(i) Kapila or Kapilavastu Vihāra; (ii) Dakshiṇārāma; (iii) Pacchimārāma; (iv) the Suļuvādēnigē of gold; (v) Purvārāma; (vi) Ätubadalena Vihāra; (vii) Isipatana Vihāra in the Rājavesibhujaṅga suburb; (viii) Kusinārā Vihāra in the Sīhapura suburb; (ix) Veļuvana Vihāra in the Vijita suburb; and (x) between the Palace and the 3 suburbs, at each gāvuta (about 2 miles), a Vihāra with Sermon and Image Houses. 13

^{10.} M. 78. 48-70; N.S. 21; Puj. 34; A.S.M. II. 11; C.J.S. (G) II. 161; A.S.C. A.R., 1911-12, 81, 82.

^{11.} M. 78. 31-47, 74-78; N.S. 21; Puj. 34; Raj. 59; A.S.M. II. 16; C.J.S. (G) II. 161; E.Z. II. 273; A.S.C.A.R., 1907, 7, 34: 1940-45, 30.

^{12.} M. So, 21; Raj. 60; E.Z. II. 124, 174, 178; A.S.C.A.R., 1902, 8-10.

^{13.} M. 73. 151-154: 78. 71-73, 79-80, 92-95; N.S. 21; Puj. 34; Raj. 59.

CHAPTER XXI

THE POLONNARUVA DISTRICT

Several places in this district have already been enumerated under Chapter III.

Vijitagama or Vijitanagara or Vijitapura was a settlement said to have been founded by one of Vijaya's Ministers, but a later tradition is that its founder was one of the brothers-in-law of Panduvāsudeva: the older Chronicle, the Dipavamsa, does not name Vijita as one of the latter. Bhaddakaccānā and her companions, who are said to have landed about this time at the mouth of the Mahaväli Ganga, were on their way to Upatissagāma (a yojana north of Anurādhapura) when they were met at Vijitanagara by the Sinhalese Ministers: therefore. Vijitanagara was between Anuradhapura and the east coast. After Dutthagamani Abhaya, about B.C. 163, had reduced the many forts held by Elara's troops along the line of the Mahaväli Ganga from Mahiyangana to the sea, 'all the Damilas on the bank of the river who had escaped destruction threw themselves for protection into the city named Vijitanagara'. It is evident that if Vijitanagara was the present Vijitabura, near Kalāväva, Elāra's retreat from the river to this place would have uncovered and opened the way to the capital, Anuradhapura, which was Dutthagamani's objective. Vijitanagara. where the fiercest resistance was offered by Elara's troops, was, obviously, the key-fortress supporting the numerous small forts along the defended river line and the main obstacle to progress beyond the river towards Anurādhapura. Opposite Vijitanagara, that is, between it and the river, Dutthagamani pitched camp in open country to organise the assault on the fortress, and the camping place came to be known as Khandhavārapitthi or Kandamunna; it is further stated that after crossing the river Dutthagamani had his meal at Battabhuttavalāhaka or Batbunnätota and then proceeded to Khandhavārapitthi: therefore, Khandhavārapitthi must have been a few miles from the river. In Sinhalese literature, Polonnaruva is sometimes referred to as Kandavuru-nuvara, 'the Camp-City'. A suburb of Polonnaruva named Vijita is mentioned in the reign of Parakkamabāhu I. Vijita. the 12th century suburb of Polonnaruva, Khandhavarapitthi which was Dutthagamani's camp in front of Vijitanagara, and Kandavuru-nuvara. the early name for Polonnaruva, are all associated with Vijitanagara. and Parker. Storey. Codrington and Paranavitana are undoubtedly right in locating Vijitanagara at or very near the later Polonnaruva. Near Khandhavārapitthi was Hatthipora.¹

1. D. 9. 10: 10. 1-6; M. 7. 45: 25. 19, 21-23, 47, 70: 73. 152: 78. 87; E.M.25. 47; M.T. 272, 16; N.S. 26; Puj. 2; Raj. 21; C.J.S. (G) II. 146; C.A. X. 52; Parker, Ancient Ceylon, 227-238: Codrington, Short History, 20, 32.

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After the capture of Vijitanagara, Duṭṭhagāmaṇi advanced to Girilaka, also called Girinil-nuvara and Girinillankada, and fought a successful action there. (Girinelavāhanaka Vihāra, to the north of Kaṇḍanagara or Kandara, was built by Sūratissa early in 2nd B.C.). Earlier, Pandukābhaya, on his eastward march from Kāsāpabbata, went to Girikanda and then crossed the river. Aggabodhi II (604-614) built Giritata or Giritalā or Giritalāka tank and Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) restored it this is present Giritalē tank. In all probability, all these variants stand for the same place, modern Giritalē. Between Girikanda and the river, on Paṇḍukābhaya's line of march; were (i) Kalahanagara, very probably present Kalahagala, 8 miles south of Polonnaruva, and (ii) Lohitavāhakhanda.²

Badaravalli was between Mayūrapāsāṇa, a ford on the Mahaväli Ganga, and Polonnaruva, closer to the latter.³

Kondivata was between Anuradhapura and Polonnaruva.4

Dūratissakavāpi Vilsāra was built by Saddhātissa (B.C. 137-119). Mahāsena's (275-301) rebel Minister, after collecting troops in Malaya, advanced towards Anurādhapura and camped at Dūratissakavāpi. Mahānāga (569-571) granted to the ascetics a thousand fields irrigated by Dūratissakavāpi. Udaya I (797-801) was at *Minnēriya* when he heard that the border land was in rebellion. His son and general, who were sent to quell the rebellion, joined the rebels. The king then advanced to Dūratissa, defeated the rebels there and proceeded to Polonnaruva. Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) restored Dūratissa tank. This tank was in the *Dambulla-Sīgiriya-Giritalē* area.⁵

Tissavaddhamānaka district was in the eastern division of Rājaraṭṭha, and in it Vasabha (67-III) built the Mucela Vihāra. Mahāsena (275-30I) built Tissavaddhamānaka tank, also called Rattisa or Ranniya. In the Mädirigiriya inscription of Kassapa V (914-923) the site is said to be in Rantisā. Parakkamabāhu I (1163-1186) repaired Suvaṇṇatissa tank. Nissaṅka Malla (1187-1196) declared Rantisā tank a sanctuary for animals. Codrington has correctly equated Tissavaddhamānaka tank with Rantisā tank, the present, breached Kavudulla-väva, 6 miles north of Miṇnēriya. The Rantisā sub-district was the area around Kavudulla and Mädigiriya: it was part of a larger division known as Bidervatukuļiya (Bijervatu-kuļi in the Sīgiri Graffiti) which extended over the greater part of the northern half of Sinhala Pattuva.

^{2.} M. 10. 27-44: 21. 6: 25. 47: 42. 67: 70. 311, 312: 79. 33; E.M. 21. 6; N.S. 26; Puj. 28; Raj. 40.

^{3.} M. 72. 96.

^{4.} M. 50. 31.

^{5.} M. 33. 19: 37. 17-19: 41. 99: 49. 5-9: 79. 32.

^{6.} M. 35. 48 : 37. 48 : 79. 32 ; M. T. 652 ; Puj. 24 ; Raj. 52 ; E. Z. II. 32, 142 ; Codrington, S. H., 34.

In Maṇḍalagirika Vihāra in Tissavaḍḍhamānaka district, Kaniṭṭha Tissa (167-186) built an Uposatha House. The son of Aggabodhi IV (667-683) built there a costly Dhātugeha or Vaṭa-dā-gē for the Cetiya. Sena II (853-887) granted the Vihāra villages. Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110) restored the Vihāra. The Cūlavamsa states that the 12th century treaty between Gajabāhu II and Parakkamabāhu was engraved on a natural rock at Maṇḍalīgiri Vihāra: this epigraph has not yet been discovered but a copy of it has been found at Saṅgamu Vihāra in Kurunāgala district. Nissanka Malla visited Māṇḍiligiri Vihāra. The ruins are now known as Mādirigiriya Vihāra, a beautiful site 10 miles north-east of Miṇṇēriya.

Manihîra tank and Vihāra, also called Minihiri, Minihoru and Minneriya, present Minneriya, were built by Mahasena (275-301). The Sinhalese Chronicles say that Mahasena dammed the Kara Ganga and brought the water to Minneriya tank along the Talavatu canal. The Kāra Gangā is mentioned in the Pāli Chronicles much later: Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) dammed it and conveyed water along the Akāsa Gangā (present Angamädilla-äla) to Parakkamasamudda at Polonnaruva. The Mahāvamsa states that the Alisara canal (present Älihära canal) was in existence in the reign of Vasabha (67-111), two centuries before Mahāsena, and that shares in it were assigned to Mucela Vihāra which was near the present Kavudulla tank: therefore the Alisara canal must have existed before the Minneriya and Kavudulla tanks were built. Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110) restored Tilavatthuka canal and filled Manihira tank once again: the name Tilavatthuka or Talavatu is preserved in present Talvatura Ova which flows into Minnēriya tank. Apparently the Tilavatthuka canal was that branch of the main Alisara canal which fed Minneriya tank. Talavatthu Vihāra, probably also known as Mahāsena Vihāra, was restored by Mānavamma (684-718): this Vihāra, in all probability, was close to the Tilavatthuka or Talavatu canal. Sena II (853-887) made a grant to Mahāsena Vihāra, and Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110) restored the Vihāra. Mānavamma (684-718) granted the village Pannabhatta to Talavatthu Vihāra. Dhātusena (455-473) built Pannavallakabhūta Vihāra, and in Pannasālaka Queen Kalyāṇavatī (1202-1208) built Kalyāṇavatī Vihāra. Sena II (853-887) built a sluice on Minnēriya tank. Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) restored Minnēriva tank and made the canal named Kalindi which flowed south from the tank's southern outlet. Nissanka Malla declared the tank a sanctuary for animals.8

Pañca Vihāra was 7 to 12 miles westward of Polonnaruva and was probably the same as Pañcapariveṇamūla restored by Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110).⁹

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Near and eastward of Kālapilla was Madhukavanagaṇṭhi: both places were between Polonnaruva and Koṭṭhasāra. Tīṇimakulla was north-west of Polonnaruva.¹⁰

Parisā-kuļiya in Pädumpasa (the eastern division of Rājaraṭṭha) was a sub-district in the 10th century extending over the *Giritalē* area: in it was the land Purmigaṇa.¹¹

Andugāma was a village close to Polonnaruva.¹²

Mahalägama is mentioned in a 10th century inscription at Polonnaruya.¹³

Thusavāpi, also called Toyavāpi and Tōpāväva, present *Tōpāväva*, is ascribed to Upatissa I (365-406): near it, presumably, was the village Thusavaṭṭhika.¹⁴

The construction of Gätupväva is ascribed to Mahāsena (275-301). In an inscription of Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) at \bar{A} naolandāva tank, $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles north of Polonnaruva, the length of the tank bund is given as 1135 riyan. The Sīgiri Graffiti mention Gädubavana. The Getthumba canal was assigned by Mahinda III (801-804) to Abhayagiri Vihāra at Anurādhapura. 15

In Kulālitissa Vihāra, also called Kuṇḍalatissa and Kuṭelitissa, Vohārika Tissa (209-231) erected a parasol. It is apparently identical with Kūṭatissa Vihāra endowed by Sena I (833-853). An inscription of Mahinda IV (956-972) at Polonnaruva (exact provenance uncertain) mentions Kuļu-tis-rad (P. Kūṭatissa) Mahāvihāra of the Mahāvihāra Nikāya and states that Kiṇigama monastery in Pädumpasa (the eastern division of Rājaraṭṭha) belongs to it: Demeļ Kiṇigam, doubtless a part of Kiṇigama, and a neighbouring canal are also mentioned. Kiṇigama was close to the river. There is a modern Kiṇigama, I mile south of Pallēgama, in Laggala Pallēsiya Pattu. 16

Muhundnaruva in the eastern division of Rājaraṭṭha and Muhundehigama are mentioned in two inscriptions, of Mahinda IV (956-972) and Sena I (831-851) respectively, at Polonnaruva. Muhundnaruva is doubtless identical with Muhunnaruva, one of the fords on the river. 17

'The second, and much larger, Parakkamasamudda "that King of reservoirs", is given pride of place in the Chronicle in the list of irrigation works of Parakkamabāhu's reign. It was formed "by

^{7.} M. 36. 17: 46. 29: 60. 58; E.Z. II. 27, 177: IV. 1.

^{8.} M. 35. 84: 37. 40, 47: 38. 47: 42. 34: 48. 8: 51. 72, 76: 60. 53, 62: 79. 31. 54: 80; 36; Puj. 24; Raj. 51, 52; E.Z. II. 142; C.J.S. (G) II. 208; C.H.J. IV. 52.

^{9.} M. 67. 61: 72. 114-120.

^{10.} M. 70. 285, 325.

II. E.Z. III. 141.

^{12.} M. 59. 5.

^{13.} C.J.S. (G) I. 173.

^{14.} M. 37. 124: 50. 73; Puj. 26; Raj. 54.

^{15.} M. 49. 41; Puj. 24; C. J.S. (G) I. 173; Sig. Graff. I, App. C.

^{16.} M. 36. 33: 51. 74; E.M. 36. 33; E.H.B. 66, 111; E.Z. 11. 56.

^{17.} E.Z. III. 294: IV. 66; Raj. 37.

damming the Kāra Gangā by a great dam between the hills and bringing its mighty flood of water hither by means of a vast canal called the Ākāsa Gangā ". The identity of the ancient Parakkamasamudda with the present, restored reservoir at Polonnaruva to which the same name has been given, admits of no doubt. King Nissanka Malla, as he was wont to do, re-named it Nissankasamudra, but neither this name nor the name which Parakkamabāhu gave it endured, except in literature. Before the modern restoration commenced, there were two separate tanks, Töpäväva at Polonnaruva and Dumbutuluväva further south, but the ancient bund, though breached and eroded in places, was continuous. It is clear from the Chronicle, too, in which 4 channels which issued from the great tank are stated to have passed close to specified sites outside the walled City, that Parakkamasamudda was at Polonnaruva. The remains of the headworks and of the feeder canal therefrom (also now restored) proved that the dam at Angamädilla on the Amban Ganga and the Angamädilla channel which conducted the water diverted by the dam, were the main source by which Parakkamasamudda was formerly filled. As Codrington and Hocart concluded, the Kāra Gangā is the Amban Ganga and the Ākāsa Gangā the Angamädilla channel. The Pūjāvaliya states that king Mahāsena "dammed the Kara Ganga to supply water to Minihirivava": the reference here is to the dam on the Amban Ganga at Alahara. The Amban Ganga was, therefore, known as the Kara Ganga in ancient and medieval times. Some 10 miles further up the river the districts through which it flowed were called Ambavaña and Sūra-ambavana in the 12th century, and even today a part of this region is known as Ambana : the older name, Kara Ganga appears to have been replaced by Amban Ganga in comparatively recent times. Its main tributary is now known as Kalu Ganga which is an equivalent for Kara Ganga. The Kalu Ganga was dammed at Hattota (near Pallegama) at an elevation of 500 feet and the water was conveyed northward along a canal, now ruined, which appears to come to an abrupt termination after about 16 miles. The local tradition is that this canal formerly continued a further 12 miles and entered the Amban Ganga just above the Älahära anicut, but only one short length of the old bund is now recognisable on the ground in this section. Brohier conjectures that over this section which is 'particularly rugged and broken up by parcels of precipitous country—the water was carried over these rocky ledges in a series of aqueducts of which all traces have vanished". If the tradition is true, then the Hattota Amuna, some 30 miles above Alahära, was the source of the Minnēriya-Giritalē-Kavudulla-Kantalāv irrigation system, and, as will be shown later, a subsidiary source for the Parakkamasamudda system.

'The Chronicle gives the names of 7 sluices on Parakkamasamudda and of 11 channels which led water away from it: these bear the names of ancient and sacred places in India and appear to be honorific. It is also stated that two canals issued from the tank Toyavāpi. Toyavāpi (Tōpāvāva) is also called Thusavāpi, and, according to the Sinhalese

Chronicles, was built by a 4th century king: when Parakkamasamudda was completed $T\bar{o}p\bar{a}v\bar{a}va$ would have been absorbed by it, but the old name was apparently retained for the uppermost portion of the great, new reservoir.

'Parakkamasamudda had a subsidiary source of water supply from the north-west by channel from Giritalākavāpi (Giritalē) through two intervening tanks named Kaddūravaddhamānaka or Kaduruvadunna (probably present, breached Dāmbalavāva) and Arimaddavijayaggāma (probably present, also breached Divulānakadavalavāva). This link connected and united two gigantic irrigation systems, both originating in the Amban Ganga, the older system with headworks at Āļahāra (? or Hattoļa) and including Minnēriva, Giritalē, Kavudulla and Kantalāv tanks, and the later system with headworks at Angamädilla and including Parakkamasamudda and the network of channels and smaller tanks under it. The mingling of the waters of different rivers, flowing in different directions, by artificial connections is one of the most impressive features of the ancient Sinhalese irrigation system.

'There were two other large tanks which bore the king's name. One was Parakkamatāļaka: the scanty information available about it does not admit of its identification. The other was Parakkamasāgara or Matisāgara which, like Parakkamasamudda, was filled by the waters of the Kāra Gangā (Amban Ganga) by means of a canal named Godāvarī. From the Ākāsa Ganga a branch flowed far to the northward and this branch was, in all probability, the Godāvarī canal. Parakkamasāgara appears, therefore, to have been a reservoir situated to the north of Polonnaruva, between Parakkamasamudda and the Minnēri Ova.

'Of the 29 canals mentioned in the Cūlavarisa as having been constructed by Parakkamabāhu I, the Pūjāvaliya mentions only one, Aciravatī. This canal took off from the Mahaväli Ganga westward, and it had 4 branches which flowed eastward (towards the river): from the point at which the Aciravatī canal originated, another canal, named Gomatī, flowed eastward to east of the river and it had a branch which flowed northward. The site of the dam from which these two canals took off to right and left is about $\frac{1}{2}$ a mile upstream of the island in the river now called Kālinga nuvara. The left bank channel, Aciravatī, is now known as Kālinga Yōdi-äla'. 18

The Pūjāvaliya gives the name Mahāsamudra to the Parakkamasamudda at Polonnaruva. The canal system associated with Parakkamasamudda is described and named in the Cūlavamsa as follows:—
(i) Gambhīrā canal, from the Makara sluice; (ii) Hemavatī canal, which flowed from the main reservoir in the direction of the Mahāmeghavaṇa park; (iii) Nīlavāhinī canal, from the Mālatīpuppha sluice;

18. The Irrigation Works of Parakkamabāhu I', C.H. J. IV. 52.

(iv) Salaļavatī canal, from the Kīlākaruyyāna sluice; (v) Vettavatī canal, from the Vettavati sluice; (vi) Tungabhadda canal, from the Dakkhina sluice; (vii) Mangalagangā canal, from the Mangalagangā sluice; (viii) Campa canal, from the sluice near the Candi Gate: (ix) Candabhāga canal, which flowed through the Lakkhuvyāna garden; (x) Nammada canal, which branched off by the corner of the Jetavana Vihāra; (xi) Sarasvatī canal, which flowed from Toyayāpi and led to Punnavaddhanavāpi; (xii) Venumatī canal, which flowed from the west side of Tovavāpi; (xiii) Yanıuna canal, which flowed west from Punnavaddhana tank; (xiv) Sarabhū canal, which flowed north from Punnavaddhana tank; (xv) Neranjarā canal which flowed north; (xvi) Bhagirathi canal, which started from Anotattavāpi; (xvii) Āvattagangā canal, which flowed south from Anotattavāpi; (xviii) Tambapanni canal, which flowed north from Ambālavāpi: (xix) Kāverī canal, which conveyed water from Giritalākavāpi (present Giritalēvāva) to Kaddūravaddhamānakavāpi, also called Kaduruvadunnā; (xx) Somavatī canal, which flowed from Kaddūravaddhamānākavapī to Arimaddavijavaggāmavāpi. The Aciravatī canal flowed westward from the Mahaväli Ganga; from it branched eastward the Gomati, Sataruddhā, Nibbindā, Dhavalā and Sīdā canals, and northward the Malapaharani canal.

CHAPTER XXII

UNIDENTIFIED PLACES IN RAJARĀTTHA

Ratanākara-raṭṭha was a district in Dakkhiṇadesa. To Umavalli Vihāra, Aggabodhi I (574-604) granted the 'far-famed' village of Ratana. The queen of Aggabodhi II (604-614) built the Ratana Vihāra for the queen of Kāliṅga who, with the king and a minister, came to Ceylon as refugees.¹

Sitthagāma Pariveņa was in Dakkhiņadesa.2

Utarala or Uttarāla tank in Dakkhiņadesa was built by Saddhātissa (B.C. 137-119) and restored by Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186).

The village Bodhisenapabbata was in Dakkhinadesa.4

Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110) restored in Dakkhiṇadesa:—(i) Sareheru tank; (ii) Dīghavatthuka tank; and (iii) Paragāmaka Vihāra.⁵

Parakkamabāhu restored the following tanks in Dakkhiṇadesa:—
(i) Kaṭunnarū tank, built by Saddhātissa (B.C. 137-119) and previously restored by Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110); (ii) Chattunnata tank; (iii) Pāṭala tank; (iv) Mālavalli tank, also called Mālavalliya; (v) Kittakaṇḍaka tank; (vi) Jallibāva tank; (vii) Dhavalaviṭṭhika-gāma tank; (viii) Naļannaru tank; (ix) Udumbaragāma tank; (x) Mūlavārika tank; (xi) Polonnarutala tank; and (xii) Visirātthala tank.6

Ujjenī was a settlement founded by one of Vijava's Ministers: it is not mentioned again. Rāmagoṇa was a settlement founded by one of the brothers-in-law of Paṇḍuvāsudeva. Kaniṭṭha Tissa (167-186) built Rāmagoṇaka Vihāra, near which was Rāmaka or Rāmuka or Rammakārāma Vihāra built by Gajabāhu I (114-136).

Devānampiya Tissa (B.C. 247-207) built Colakatissa Vihāra: the Commentaries mention Coraka Mahāvihāra and Corakaṇḍaka Vihāra.8

Saddhātissa (B.C. 137-119) built the following tanks and Vihāras:—
(i) Kallakālena Vihāra, also called Kālalena, Kallahālena, and

- I. M. 42. 18, 47:69.31.
- 2. M. 54. 6, 35.
- 3. M. 68. 47; Puj. 18.
- 4. M. 61. 33.
- 5. M. 60, 48-60.
- 6. M. 60. 49: 68 43-50: 70. 67; Puj. 18.
- 7. D. 22. 14; M. 7. 45: 9. 9: 35. 122: 36. 14; M.T. 659; Puj. 2.
- 8. D. 17. 91; E.H.B., App. IB.

Kallaka Mahāvihāra; (ii) Pettaṅgavālika Vihāra; (iii) Näpiyoba tank: (iv) Sōdigamuva tank; (v) Käṇdala tank; and (vi) Mahagurunalē tank.⁹

Ukkanagara or Ukkānāṅgara Vihāra existed in 2nd B.C. and there were 700 monks there. A place Uṇhānagara or Huṇannaru is mentioned later: the Sīgiri Graffiti name Huṇaru-bim. 10

Ministers of Vaṭṭagāmaṇi Abhaya (B.C. 89-77) built Saliyārāma and Devāgāra Vihāras. The village of Kupikkala mentioned in this king's reign was also known as Kemgalla.¹¹

Mahācūļī Mahātissa (B.C. 77-65) built Vankāvattakagalla or Vangāvattakagalla Vihāra. 12

Vihāras existing in 1st B.C. or 1st A.C. were:—(i) Koraņḍaka; (ii) Kolita: close to it was Potaliya Vihāra; (iii) Tālapiṭṭhika; (iv) Vajagaragiri; (v) Khaṇḍacela, in which was the Meditation House named Kaṇikāra; (vi) Dīpa or Dibba; and (vii) Sudhāmuṇḍaka.¹³

The sub-district Ullabbhakola-kaṇṇikā was probably 5 yojanas distant from *Mihintalē*. The district Muggāyatana-raṭṭha was a division of Rājaraṭṭha and in it was a village of fishermen.¹⁴

In Kunıbhigallaka Vihāra, Vasabha (67-III) built an Uposatha House. This king built the following tanks:—(i) Kälikolomnā or Kälanikolonna; (ii) Kalusimbala; (iii) Makulumunguņu or Makulla; (iv) Rājuppala or Ratuppala or Raduppala: Upatissa I (365-406) is also credited with the construction of this tank; (v) Mahārāmetti; and (vi) Cambuṭi, also called Jambuṭi and Cambuṭṭhi: Upatissa I built Ambutthi tank. 15

Mahāllaka Nāga (136-143) founded:—(i) Tanaveli Vihāra, also called Tānavela and Cānavela, in Bījagāma; and (ii) Goṭapabbata Vihāra, also called Koṭipabbata and Goṭapāsāṇapabbata, to south of Anurādhapura. 16

Bhātikatissa (143-167) built:—(i) Bhātivanka Vihāra, also called Bhātikatissa and Bhātiyavanka; and (ii) Randhakanḍaka Vihāra, also called Karanḍakanḍa.¹⁷

- 9. D. 20. 2; M. 33. 8; E.M. 33. 7; Puj. 18; E.H.B., App. IB.
- 10. M. 32. 54; Thv. 213; Puj. 30; Raj. 57.
- 11. M. 33. 49, 67, 90; N.S. 11.
- 12. M. 34. 9; E.M. 34. 9.
- 13. E.H.B. 76, 83, 84, 122, 124, 128, 137.
- 14. E.H.B. 85; E.Z. III. 93.
- 15. D. 22. 7, 8; M. 35. 86, 93-95: 37. 185; E.M. 35. 95; Puj. 21; Raj. 46, 47.
- 16. M. 35. 124, 125; E.M. 35. 125; M.T. 657; E.H.B. 70.
- 17. M. 30. 46: 36. 4; E.M. 36. 4; M.T. 606.

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Nandatissa-ārāma was built by Kanittha Tissa (167-186). Bhūtārāma existed in this king's reign, but in a later passage he is said to have built it: Aggabodhi VIII (804-815) built Bhūta Pariyena. 18

Dassamālinī-ārāma was founded by Vohārika Tissa (209-231) who also restored Kappukagāma Vihāra. 19

Jetthatissa I (263-275) built the following tanks and Vihāras:—
(i) Ālambagāma tank; (ii) Heluggamuva tank; (iii) Dematāva tank; (iv) Pisannāva tank; (v) Vadugamuva tank; (vi) Bamunugamuva tank: Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) restored Brāhmaṇaggāma tank; (vii) Pādāla Piriveṇa, also called Pālangiriya; and (viii) Elagal or Elugal Vihāra.²⁰

Mahāsena (275-301) built the following tanks:—(i) Cīravāpi, also called Sirivalāssa and Siruvāla: Mahānāga (569-571) granted Cīramātikavāra canal to the Mahāvihāra; (ii) Mahāgāmavāpi; (iii) Mahādāragallakavāpi, also called Madaragal: a 6th century inscription at Abhayagiri Vihāra names a resident of Mahadaragala: Jeṭṭhatissa III (628) granted Mahādāragiri to Abhayagiri Vihāra; Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110) and Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) restored Mahādāragalla tank; (iv) Sakurumboru or Puskumbura; (v) Beļpiṭiya or Belipiṭiya; (vi) Ponnāva; and (vii) Soragalla.²¹

Mahāsena (275-301) also built the following Vihāras:—(i) Gaṅgāsenakapabbata; (ii) Migagāma or Muvagamuva, also described as a tank; and (iii) Hulapiṭṭhi or Cūlapiṭṭhi or Cūlaviṭṭhi Vihāra. 22

Upatissa I (365-406) built:—(i) Palāvatu Piriveṇa, later ascribed to Dāṭhopatissa I: it is identical with the Sākavatthu Vihāra of Kassapa II (650-659): the Sīgiri Graffiti mention Palāvatu-vehera and Palāvatu-vela; (ii) Gijjhakūṭavāpi; (iii) Pokkharapāsayavāpi; (iv) Valāhassavāpi, also called Siravalāskäṭiya: Aggabodhi II (604-614) is also credited with it: Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110) and Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) restored it.²³

Mahānāma (406-428) built and presented to Abhayagiri Vihāra:—
(i) Lohadvāra Vihāra; (ii) Ralaggāma Vihāra; and (iii) Koṭipassāvana Vihāra: Dhātusena (455-473) is also credited with this last.²⁴

Chattaggāhaka tank was built by the usurper (428),25

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18. M. 36. 7, 14: 49. 46.
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^{19.} D. 22. 37-45; M. 36. 29.

^{20.} M. 36. 131: 79. 32; Puj. 24; Raj. 51.

^{21.} M. 37. 47, 49 : 41. 100 : 44. 95 : 60. 50 : 79. 32 ; Puj. 24 ; Raj. 52 ; E.Z. **IV**. 141.

^{22.} M. 37. 41, 43; E.M. 37. 48; M.T. 684; Puj. 24; Raj. 52.

^{23.} M. 37. 185: 42. 67: 44. 135: 60. 50: 79. 36; Puj. 26, 28, 29; Raj. 54, 56.

^{24.} M. 37. 212: 38. 46.

^{25.} M. 39. 3.

The following Vihāras are ascribed to Dhātusena (455-473):— (i) Vaḍḍha: Parakkamabāhu I restored Vaḍḍhana tank; (ii) Antaramegiri; (iii) Kassipiṭṭhikadhātusena or Kassipiṭṭhikapubbaka; (iv) Attāļhidhātusena; and (v) Bhallātaka, also called Badulu: earlier, Badulu Vihāra was ascribed to Deṭutissa: Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110) restored Bhallātaka Vihara. 26

Dhātusena also built the following tanks:—(i) Pādūlaka; (ii) Hambaṭṭhī (cf. Ambuṭṭlii); (iii) Kaļunnaru: this tank is later attributed to Aggabodhi II (604-614) and the name occurs in a 10th century inscription; (iv) Danavallā; (v) Udanviṭi; (vi) Kitıniṇi; (vii) Mahaḍabarā; (viii) Malāsu; and (ix) Mahanidel.²⁷

Aggabodhi I (571-604) built Bhinnorudīpa Vihāra and granted to it the village Vaṭṭakārapiṭṭhi. In Kārapiṭṭhi, Moggallāna III (614-619) built Moggallāna Vihāra.²⁸

Aggabodhi II (604-614) built:—(i) Jamburantaragalla Vihāra; (ii) Mātikapiṭṭhi Vihāra; (iii) a Practising House for the king of Kālinga in Mattapabbata Vihāra; (iv) Hovatu tank; and (v) Kängomu tank.²⁹

Moggallāna III (614-619) built Piṭṭhigāma Vihāra and Vaṭagāma Vihāra. 30

To Gangāmāti Vihāra, Jeṭṭhatissa III (628) assigned the village Keheta. 31

Bodhitissa Vihāra and the Pariveņas named Mahākanda, Cullapantha and Sehālauparājaka were built in the reign of Aggabodhi IV (667-683).³²

Mānavamma (684-718) built the following Vihāras:—(i) Girinagara Vihāra in Devapāli: the Sīgiri Graffiti mention Galnaru; (ii) Rājamātika Vihāra for the ascetics; (iii) the Siripāsāda in Sirisaṃghabodhi Vihāra; (iv) Rājinīdīpika Vihāra for the Dhammaruci sect; (v) Vādūmula Piriveņa; (vi) Aļagiri Piriveņa; (vii) Satvāliya Pirivena; and (viii) Uturu Pirivena.³³

Mahārājaghara Vihāra existed in the reign of Aggabodhi VI (733-772).34

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    M. 38. 46-50: 60. 60: 79. 36; Puj. 24, 27.
    M. 38. 50; Puj. 27, 28; E.Z. II. 218.
    M. 42. 46: 44. 50.
    M. 42. 43, 46; Puj. 28.
    M. 44. 50.
    M. 44. 100.
    M. 46. 24, 31.
    M. 47. 65: 48. 1, 3, 4; Puj. 30; Sig. Graff. I, App. C.
    M. 46. 21.
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Aggabodhi VII (772-777) built:—(i) Vāpārani Vihāra; (ii) Mānaggabodhi Vihāra; and (iii) Mallavāta Vihāra. He improved Punapiṭṭhi Vihāra. Vāṇijagāma Vihāra existed in his reign.³⁵

Udaya I (797-801) granted (i) Mahāmaga village to an Image House at Anurādhapura; (ii) Kāļussa village to Nīlārāma monastery; and (iii) Ārāmassa village to an Image House. At Padāvi he built a hospital. He endowed Nāgavaḍḍhana Vihāra. In Ambuyyāna Vihāra he built the Dappulapabbata House: Sena I (833-853) completed Dappulapabbata Vihāra.³⁶

Kālūla Vihāra was endowed by Aggabodhi VIII (804-815), and Lāvarāvapabbata Vihāra was repaired by Dappula II (815-831).³⁷

Aggabodhi IX (831-833) granted to the smaller Vihāras at Anurādhapura the villages:—(i) Kanṭhapitṭhi, an important village; (ii) Yābālagāma; and (iii) Telagāma.³⁸

Sena II (853-887) built an Image House in Sobbha Vihāra.³⁹

Savāraka Vihāra was built by Kassapa IV (898-914) and handed over to the Mahāvihāra.40

Huligam Pirivena is mentioned in an inscription of Mahinda IV (956-972).⁴¹

Handinnarugama is mentioned in a roth century inscription. 42

Gallakapītha village is mentioned in early times. Cīvaragumba monastery was also ancient: bathing tanks were built at Cīvaracetiya and Kappāsagāma.⁴³

Samghātagāma was granted to the ascetics.44

Sītalaggāma cave temple was restored by Vijayabāhu I (1055-1110). 45

Parakkamabāhu I (1153-1186) restored the following tanks:—
(i) Ekāhavāpi; (ii) Mahaṇṇavāpi; (iii) Madaguvāpi; (iv) Vīravāpi;
(v) Suramānavāpi; (vi) Kāhallivāpi; and (vii) Tālaggallakavāpi.⁴⁶

In Nissanka Malla's (1186-1193) inscriptions the following towns are mentioned:—(i) Sonaya; (ii) Nissankapura; and (iii) Srivāsapura.⁴⁷

In addition to the grants already mentioned as made to the Vihāras in the City of Anurādhapura, the following unidentified places

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35. M. 48. 25, 64-70: 49. 47.
36. M. 49. 15, 17, 19. 21, 30: 50. 80.
37. M. 49. 47, 76.
38. M. 49. 89, 90.
39. M. 51. 76.
40. M. 52. 31.
41. E.Z. I. 228.
42. E.Z. III. 143.
43. M. 17. 59: 54. 51; E.H.B. 16.
44. M. 60. 68.
45. M. 60. 59.
46. M. 79. 28-37.
47. E.Z. II. 178.
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are mentioned in the Chronicles and inscriptions in reference to these Vihāras:—

- (a) Issarasamaṇa Vihāra:—Pre-Christian inscriptions in situ mention Taladara and Taṇacadaka. In a 1st century inscription, Ayibaravika tank is granted to the Vihāra. In inscriptions of the 6th and 7th centuries, the following place-names occur:—(i) Latakatala; (ii) Abagamiya; (iii) Sahasavarala; (iv) Durusava; and (v) Sakaṇakana. Jeṭṭhatissa III (628) granted the Vihāra the village Ambilāpika, and Dāṭhopatissa II (659-667) the village Senāmagāma; 48
- (b) Mahāvihāra:—Buddhadāsa (337-365) granted the Vihāra the village Samaṇagāma, also called Mahaṇagama. Dāṭhopatissa II (659-667) donated Kasagāma and Punneli;⁴⁹
- (c) Abhayagiri Vihāra:—Kaniṭṭha Tissa (167-186), in his inscription in situ, donated:—(i) Niṭilaviṭiya tank; (ii) Kubigamaka tank; (iii) Mahabaṭi tank; (iv) Nalibiaviya tank; and (v) Micataki tank. Khuddā Pārinda (434-450) in his inscription mentions:—(i) Acabalana; (ii) Valakaya; and (iii) Kadabanamabara. Mahānāga (569-571) gifted the weavers' village, Jambelambaya. In inscriptions of the 6th and 7th centuries in situ are mentioned:—(i) Gutakadara; (ii) Madararayana; (iii) Eraya; (iv) Lava-arana; and (v) Nadanagamu. Aggabodhi II (604-614) granted Anganasālaka village. A 9th century Sanskrit inscription mentions:—(i) Lahasikā; (ii) Urulgōnu; (iii) Hunālā; (iv) Kīrā; (v) Ulavannarīkhanṭigrāma; (vi) Pallāya; and (vii) Sunagrāma. Kassapa V (914-923) granted Väligamu; 50
- (d) Dakkhina Vihāra:—Gajabāhu I (114-136) granted Varukaviya. In the Dakkhina Vihāra tablets of the 2nd century, the following place-names occur:—(i) Lanavilakakaniya; (ii) Kanukaya; (iii) Patagama; (iv) Abayavika; (v) Ravayamala; (vi) Rajaka dam; (vii) Cona-aviya; and (viii) Ekahalaka-ati-vavi. In a 7th century inscription, Matakagama is mentioned.⁵¹
- (e) Jetavana Vihāra:—Mahānāga (569-571) donated Vasabhagāma in Uddhagāma. Jeṭṭhatissa III (628) granted Goṇḍigāma: Upatissa I (365-406) built Goṇḍigāma tank and Mānavamma (684-718) restored it.⁵²

CHAPTER XXIII

UNIDENTIFIED PLACES IN ROHANA

Mahānāga, first ruler of Rohaņa in the latter part of the 3rd century B.C., built the Vihāras named (i) Nuvaranguņu, (ii) Senalena, and (iii) Vilpiţa.¹

Goṭhābhaya, ruler of Rohaṇa early in the 2nd century B.C. built there:—(i) Ogha Vihāra, which may be the same as Selantara-samūha-pāsāda; (ii) Goṭhābhaya Vihāra; (iii) Kumbhasēla Vihāra; (iv) Tīndukalēna Vihāra; (v) Karaṇḍaka-leṇa Vihāra, identical with Kuraṇḍaka Mahāleṇa and Karaṇḍakola, near Mahāgāma: the thera Cittagutta lived in the cave which was full of beautiful paintings; (vi) Mattikāleṇa Vihāra in Hatthoṭṭha district: in this district was also Kukkuṭaparvata; and (vii) Ambasēla Vihāra.²

Kākavaṇṇa Tissa, who succeeded Goṭhābhaya as ruler of Rohaṇa in the first half of the 2nd century B.C., built the following Vihāras:—
(i) Kālaka; (ii) Kolomtissa Galvihāra; (iii) Vilgam: this was the ancient name of present Sēruvavila in Trincomalee district; (iv) Dukkhapālaka; (v) Uḍanguṇu; (vi) Koṭitissa; (vii) Kūṭāli or Kuṭṭāli; (viii) Lutherahalpav; (ix) Giriuturuvāra; (x) Niyangam; (xi) Ratkarav; and (xii) Dora.³

Nigrodhasāla or Nugahalkada was the place where Veļusumana killed Nandāsaratti. 4

In Kuļumbari-kaņņikā or Kadaļumbari was the village Hundarīvāpi.⁵

Saddhātissa (B.C. 137-119) built (i) Kalambaka or Kalumbala or Kalumbara Vihāra, and (ii) Lenamahamāla tank.⁶

Ālindaka Vihāra was the abode of the great thera Mahāphussadeva in the 1st century $_{\rm B.C.7}$

Kapuveṇa Vihāra was probably in Rohaṇa and connected with the Veṇu-nadī.8

Kuḍḍarajja or Kuḍḍharajja-danavva was the name of a district and of a Vihāra.9

- 1. Dhv. 30.
- 2. M. 57. 38: 60. 84; Dhv. 24, 31; E.H.B. 122, 126.
- 3. M. 22. 23; E.M. 22. 65; Puj. 16; Dhv. 83.
- 4. M.T. 441, 12.
- 5. M. 23. 45; M.T. 451, 30.
- 6. M. 33. 8; E.M. 33. 8; Puj. 18; E.H.B. App. IB.
- 7. E.H.B. 68, 82, 121, 126, 149.
- 8. E.H.B. 123, App. 1A.
- 9. Rsv. II, 4; Sdhlk 298.

^{48.} M. 44. 98; 45. 27; 48. 25; E.Z. IV. 133.

^{49.} M. 37. 173: 45. 28; Puj. 25.

^{50.} M. 41. 96: 42. 63; E.Z. I. 6, 51, 256: IV. 141, 256.

^{51.} A.S.C.A.R., 1948, 9.

^{52.} M. 37. 186: 41. 97: 44. 97: 48. 9.

Mahānāgatissa Vihāra was repaired by Vohārika Tissa (209-231).¹⁰

Penambangana or Panhambangana or, probably also, Pennamana, was presumably a place where medicines were distributed. 11

Dhātusena (455-473) built the following Vihāras in Rohaṇa:—
(i) Dāyagāma; (ii) Sālavāna: Dappula of Rohaṇa is also credited with this work; and (iii) Vibhīsana. Dhātusena also built Kalam tank.¹²

The following Vihāras in Rohaṇa were built or restored by Dappula, ruler of Rohaṇa in the middle of the 7th century:—(i) Pariveṇa Vihāra; (ii) Ambaniālā Vihāra; (iii) Muttolamba, Sirivaḍḍha and Takkambila Pāsādas, probably all in Mahāgāma; (iv) Rāja Vihāra, to which was granted the village Gonnagāma; (v) Kīrola Vihāra; (vi) Beraṇgul or Borāgul Vihāra; (vii) Vaḍunnā or Vaḍunna Vihāra: tanks named Vaḍunna and Vaḍunnāva are ascribed to Vasabha and Mahāsena respectively: the Sīgiri Graffiti mention the district Vaḍuṇṇā-bim; (viii) Daļakasupgiri; (ix) Veheragam; (x) Kevillayagam or Kevillagam; (xi) Veraļu or Vera; (xii) Hil or Hilpul; (xiii) Mahadiv or Mahadivu; (xiv) Sambōgama; (xv) Vāgama, which may be present Vēgama, near Bibilē; and (xvi) Viyal Vihāra. 13

The Sigiri Graffiti mention (i) Pandulagam, and (ii) Dalamehombu, both in Rohana. 14

Udaya II (887-898) built Tumbarup or Mahatumburuppē Vihāra.¹⁵

In Bolatulā Vihāra in Rohaṇa, Mahinda IV (956-972) installed a gold Image. 16

Mahinda V in 991 set up an armed camp at Sīdupabbatagāma in Rohaṇa after his escape from Anurādhapura. 17

Mūlasālā was the place where the prince Kitti (afterwards Vijayabāhu I) dwelt: probably near it was Budalaviṭṭhi where his parents were cremated and 5 large dwellings for bhikkhus were erected. 18

Other places mentioned in Rohaṇa are:—(i) Titthavila; (ii) Mapaṭunna, which may be identical with Madanapaṭuna and Pañhamaṇḍapaṭṭhāna; (iii) Gandhamula; (iv) Jotirasapāsāṇa; (v) Sagamdora; and (vi) Koturukaḍu Vihāra in Giripādadanavva.¹⁹

- 10. M. 36. 34.
- 11. E.H.B. 61, App. IB.
- 12. M. 38. 49: 45. 45; Puj. 28.
- 13. M. 45. 45, 55, 56, 58; Puj. 21, 24, 29; Raj. 46, 52, 57; Sig. Graff. I, App. C.
- 14. Sig. Graff. I, App. C.
- 15. Puj. 31; Raj. 58.
- 16. E.Z. II, 69.
- 17. M. 55. 8.
- 18. M. 57. 44: 60. 57.
- 19. Dhv. 41, 42, 49, 53, 73; Sdhlk 580, 451; E.H. B. IB.

CHAPTER XXIV

UNLOCATED PLACES

The inscriptions, particularly those of the 9th to 12th centuries, contain the village names of the officials who attested the documents, and several of these place-names cannot with certainty be assigned to any one of the three, major territorial divisions. They are:—Ataragalu; Akuräļi; Balinotgamu; Diyävälla; Galukāhāla; Ganguļlusu; Goļuggamu; Guligama; Hakkagam; Hivaļā; Kahambalkuļu; Kahāva; Karāgam; Katiri; Keļālā; Kiļindiri; Koļabā; Kilinggam or Mahakilinggam; Kuburgamu; Mahakubussālu; Mahanavagam; Maṇitilā or Manitalā; Mivugama: Mulavaḍa; Mulavasā; Nilavasā; Nilaya; Nilgonna; Niligalu: Ramukkadu; Sabāvaḍunnā; Sumaṅgalu; Sumeragamu; Taknaru; Tamburugamu; Ukuṇuhusu; and Vatrak.¹

The Pāli Commentaries name the following places:—Ambangana: the Sīgiri Graffiti mention Ambagana-vatu: Antarasamuddha Vihāra. existing in the reign king Bhātiya; Bhaggari or Bhaggiri Vihāra; Bhātaragāma; Bhokkantagāma or Bhekkhantagāma, near Kallaka Vihāra; Coriyassara; Devaputta Mahārattha; Gavilangana; Kabupelanda; Kālagāma; Kālhāla Vihāra; Kallavālagāma; Kankanaka; Kāraliyagiri; Kassaka-lena; Kilanjakāsanasāladvāra; Karavīka; Kolapav Vihāra; Mahākaranda Vihāra; Mahāmunigāma; Mahāpunņagāma; Mālārāma; Mankulakārāma; Mūluppalavāpi Vihāra; Nānāmukha and Licchikali: the phrase denoting Lanka from end to end is 'from Nānāmukha to Licchikali, from Kalyānī to Nāgadīpa: since Kalyani is in the west and Nagadipa in the north, the other two places should be east and south; Pahecivatthu; Punnavālika or Punņavallika; Pūvapabbata; Rājamātu Vihāra; Sākiyavamsa Vihāra; Setambangana; Tālavelimagga; Tatthakasāla Pariveņa, existing in the time of Saddhā Tissa; Vallivavīthi; Vattabakka; and Atthasatthilena.2

The following place-names which occur in the Sīgiri Graffiti are not found in the literary works or in the inscriptions:—Bagona; Bahilivatugama; Bonuva; Devalagama; Digalavāṇa; Dīgalu; Dunaturā Nāvehera; Dunuvāgam; Eļeneļa-kuļi; Galagombu;

^{1.} E.Z. I. 136; E.Z. I. 206; E.Z. II. 70; E.Z. IV. 252; E.Z. IV. 43; E.Z. II. 8; E.Z. II. 5; E.Z. I. 251; E.Z. I. 171; E.Z. II. 218; E.Z. IV. 43; E.Z. IV. 208; E.Z. III. 277; E.Z. II. 43; E.Z. I. 251; E.Z. II. 175; E.Z. III. 269; E.Z. III. 105; E.Z. III. 56: III. 269; E.Z. I. 251; E.Z. II. 25; E.Z. II. 234; E.Z. II. 5: IV. 185; E.Z. III. 300: E.Z. I. 206; E.Z. III. 81; E.Z. II. 8; E.Z. II. 37; E.Z. IV. 66; E.Z. IV. 54; E.Z. II. 218; E.Z. II. 161; E.Z. III. 269; E.Z. III. 32; E.Z. III. 81; E.Z. II. 48; E.Z. III. 191; E.Z. III. 269.

^{2.} E.H.B. 31, 66, 68, 69, 71, 74, 75, 82, 83, 86, 89, 121, 122, 123, 127, App. IB.

Galakäṭa; Gatabagiri; Hedigama; Jeṭagala; Jivitoṭa; Kaṇāmägiri; Kayabura; Kobala; Malapala; Mahaviṭi; Maha Amuṇdora; Meyivana; Miṇiber-pā; Molobā; Namaḍagama; Neliya; Nilalḍal; Nilkaḍa; Padagam; Paratta; Pesili; Pihili; Rajalā; Rajanamā; Rajviṭi; Ranahala Piriveṇa; Salagala; Sammaṅḍu; Sanlad-kubuva; Sapugasa-väliya; Senpavu; Serittagama; Suluva; Talaboya; Talapā-piriveṇ; Tambagola; Tamunḍagam; Vahagalu Piriveṇ; Vävakäṭi; Vehelnaru Piriveṇ; Vilatere; Yahagamu; Yäṭiligam; and Yehangiri.³

Kassapa II (650-659) repaired the dwelling of the Mahāthera of Nāgasālā and granted it the village of Mahāniṭṭhila. Aggabodhi IV (667-683) granted to Nāgasālā Vihāra:—(i) Kaṭandhakara or Andhakāra, also known as Kaṭakandhakāra, Kaṭakanāra, Kaṭakandara, Kālandhakāla and Kālakanda; (ii) Kevaṭṭagambhīra; (iii) Bharattāla; (iv) Kihimbila; (v) Kaṭaka; (vi) Andhanāraka; (vii) Antureli; (viii) Bālava (ix) Dvāranāyaka; (x) Pelahāla; and (xi) Mahānikkaḍḍhika. The same king built the Aggabodhi Practising House in Nāgasālā Vihāra.4

^{3.} Sig. Graff., I, App. C.

^{4.} M. 44. 151: 45. 3, 58: 46. 6-5, 12, 13; E.H.B. 68; U.C.R. I, 90.

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